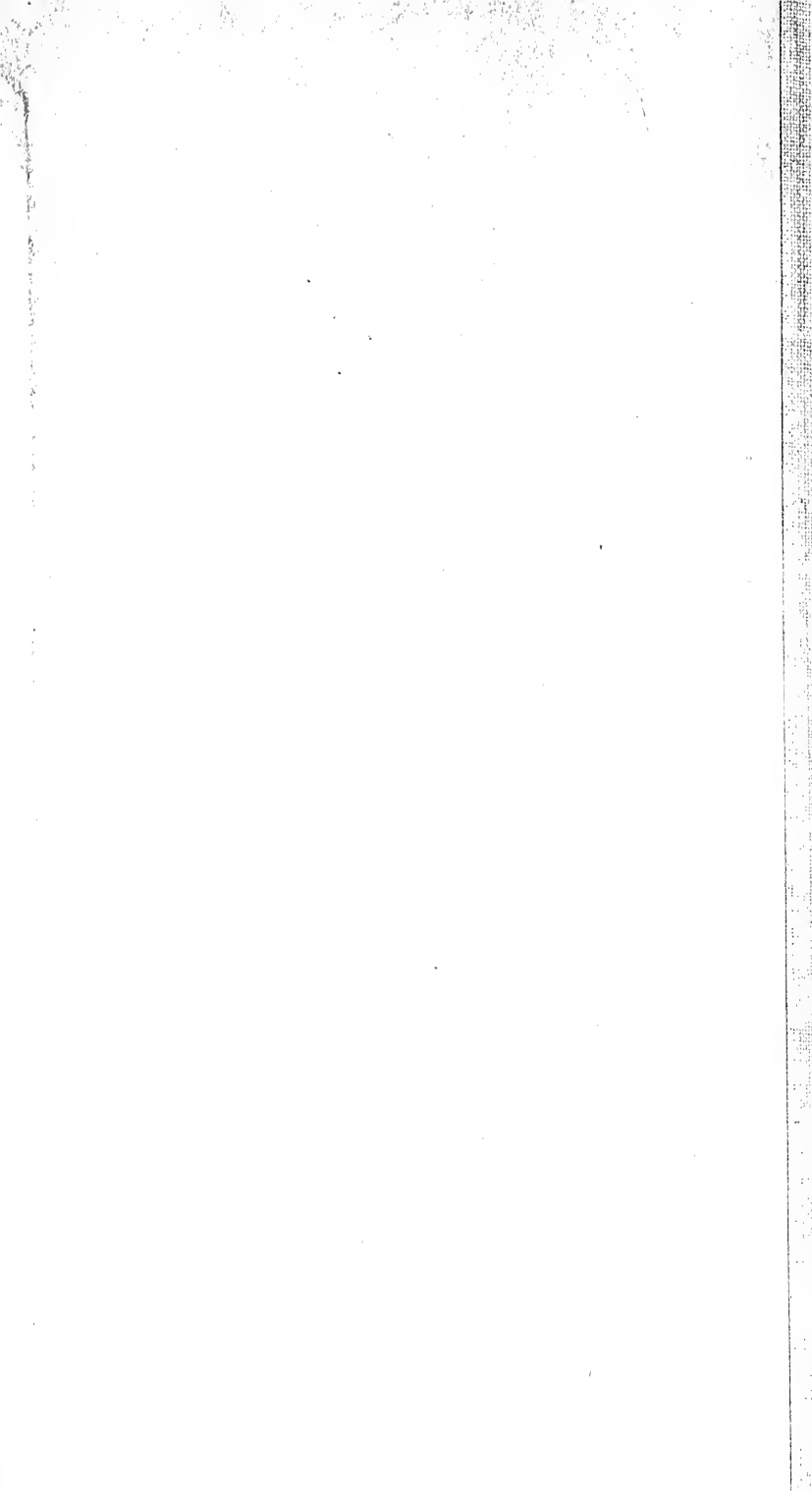


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THE
HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

VOL. IV.

THE
HISTORY
OF
THE UNITED STATES
OF
NORTH AMERICA,
FROM
THE PLANTATION OF THE BRITISH COLONIES
TILL
THEIR REVOLT AND DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

~~~~~  
By JAMES GRAHAME, Esq.  
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IN FOUR VOLUMES.

VOL. IV.

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THE HISTORY OF NORTH AMERICA.

BOOK X.

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THE expectations which had been formed, both in Britain and America, of a vigorous and successful campaign, were completely disappointed. If it had been the wish or intention of the British ministers to render the guardian care of the parent state ridiculous, and its supremacy odious to the colonists, they could hardly have selected a fitter instrument for the achievement of this sinister purpose than Lord Loudoun. Devoid of genius, either civil or military ; always hurried, and hurrying others, yet making little progress in the dispatch of business ; hasty to project and threaten, but mutable, indecisive, and languid in pursuit and action ; negligent of even

CHAPTER
V.

1757.

Incapacity
of the British
Commander in
America.

BOOK the semblance of public virtue; impotent against the enemy
 X. whom he was sent to destroy; formidable only to the spirit
 1757. and liberty of the people whom he was commissioned to
 defend; he excited alternately the disgust, the apprehensions,
 and the contemptuous amazement of the colonists of America.¹

January. In the commencement of this year he repaired to Boston,
 where he was met by a council composed of the governors of
 Nova Scotia and of the states of New England. To this
 council he addressed a speech in which, with equal insolence
 and absurdity, he ascribed the public safety to the efforts of
 the English soldiers, and all the recent successes of the
 French to the misconduct of the American troops or the pro-
 vincial governments. It is unlikely, notwithstanding the
 arrogance of his disposition and the narrowness of his capa-
 city, that he could have expected to stimulate the Americans
 to a higher strain of exertion, by depreciating their past
 services, and exalting, above their gallant and successful
 warriors, the defeated troops and disgraced commanders of
 England. Nor, indeed, does he appear to have entertained
 any such chimerical purpose. He required that the govern-
 ments of New England should contribute only four thousand
 men, which should be despatched to New York, there to unite
 with the quotas to be furnished by that province and New
 Jersey, and thereafter to be conducted by him to an enter-
 prise which, he declared, that the interests of the British
 service forbade him immediately to disclose, but which, they
 might be assured, would not be uncongenial to the views and
 sentiments of the people of New England. This moderate
 requisition, far inferior to the exaction which had been anti-
 cipated, served at least to silence the murmurs, though it could
 not appease the discontent and indignation created by Lord
 Loudoun's preliminary remarks; and the levies which he

¹ "He is like St. George upon a sign-post," said a Philadelphian to Dr. Franklin, "always on horseback but never advancing." When Franklin pressed for reimbursement of certain supplies which he had been employed to procure for the army, Lord Loudoun told him that he could afford to wait, as his employment had doubtless given him ample opportunity of filling his own pockets. Franklin endeavoured to repel this insinuation; but the integrity to which he pretended was treated by Lord Loudoun as something utterly incredible. "On the whole," says Franklin, "I wondered much how such a man came to be entrusted with so important a business as the conduct of a great army; but having since seen more of the great world, and the means of obtaining, and motives for giving places and employments, my wonder is diminished." Franklin's Memoirs.

demanded, having been speedily raised, hastened to unite themselves with the contingents drawn from the other provinces at New York, where, early in the spring, the British commander found himself at the head of more than six thousand American troops. It had been expected by the states of New England, and, perhaps it had been the original purpose of Lord Loudoun himself, that this force should be applied to the reduction of Ticonderoga and Crown-Point; but he was induced to depart from this plan, if indeed he ever entertained it, by the tidings of an additional armament having been despatched from Britain to Nova Scotia. This armament, consisting of eleven ships of the line, besides transports and bombketches, under the command of Admiral Holborne and Commodore Holmes, and containing six thousand disciplined soldiers, conducted by George Viscount Howe, arrived accordingly at Halifax, whither Lord Loudoun shortly after repaired, along with the forces which he had collected at New York. He now proclaimed his intention of declining for the present all active operations against Crown-Point or Ticonderoga, and of uniting his whole disposeable force in an expedition to Cape Breton, for the conquest of Louisburg. This abandonment of the enterprise, on which they had confidently relied, was a severe disappointment to the states of New England: nor was their concern abated by the issue of the design which Lord Loudoun had preferably embraced; for it now appeared that he was totally unacquainted with the strength of the place which he proposed to subdue; and his attack upon it was first suspended by the necessity of gaining this preliminary information, and ultimately relinquished, in consequence of the result of his inquiries, and of the accession of force which the place received while these inquiries were pending. It was found that Louisburg was garrisoned by six thousand regular troops, besides militia, and farther defended by seventeen line of battle ships, which were moored in the harbour, and which arrived while the British troops lingered inactively at Halifax. Lord Loudoun accounting the armament, which he commanded, unequal to cope with this force, announced that the enterprise must be deferred till the following year; and, having dismissed the provincial troops, he returned in the end of August to New York, there to learn

BOOK X. the disaster which his conduct had occasioned in another
 1757. quarter, and which crowned the disgrace of this inglorious
 campaign.¹

Montcalm, the French commander, availing himself of the unskilful movements by which Lord Loudoun had withdrawn so large a portion of the British force from New York to Halifax, advanced with an army of nine thousand men, and laid siege to Fort William-Henry, which was garrisoned by nearly three thousand troops, partly English and partly American, and commanded by a brave English officer, Colonel Monroe. The security of this important post was supposed to be still farther promoted by the proximity of Fort Edward, which was scarcely fourteen miles from it, and where the English General Webb was stationed with a force of four thousand men. Had Webb done his duty, the besiegers might have been repulsed, and Fort William-Henry preserved: but though he had timely notice of the approach of the enemy, yet with strange indolence or timidity, he neither summoned the American governments to aid the place with their militia, nor despatched a single company of his own soldiers to its succour. Nay, whether or not he desired, so far was he from hoping to avert, its capture, that the only communication which he made to Monroe, during the siege, was a letter advising him to surrender without delay. Montcalm, on the other hand, who was endowed with a high degree of military genius, pressed the assault on Fort William-Henry with the utmost vigour and skill. He had inspired his own daring spirit into the French soldiers, and had roused the fury and enthusiasm of his Indian auxiliaries by promising revenge proportioned to their losses, and plunder as the reward of their conquest.²

Loss of
Fort Wil-
liam-
Henry.

9 Aug.

After a spirited resistance, which, however, endured only for six days, Monroe, finding that his ammunition was exhausted, and that hopes of relief were desperate, was compelled to sur-

¹ The recent fate of Admiral Byng whom the British court meanly sacrificed to popular rage, for an unsuccessful engagement at sea, was supposed to have paralysed the energy of many British officers at this juncture.

² "On the very day he invested the place, he sent a letter to Colonel Monroe, telling him he thought himself obliged, in humanity, to desire he would surrender the fort, and not provoke the great number of savages in the French army by a vain resistance. *A detachment of your garrison, he said, has lately experienced their cruelty. I have it yet in my power to constrain them, and oblige them to observe a capitulation, as none of them hitherto are killed.*"—Smollett.

render the place by a capitulation, of which the terms were far more honourable to the vanquished, than the fulfilment of them was to the victors. It was conditioned that the garrison should not serve against the French for eighteen months; that they should march out with the honours of war; and, retaining their private baggage, be escorted to Fort Edward by French troops, as a security against the lawless ferocity of the Indians. But these savages were incensed at the terms which Montcalm (whether swayed by generous respect for a gallant foe, or apprehensive that Webb would be roused at length from his supine indifference) had granted to the garrison; and seeing no reason why the French general should postpone the interest of his allies to that of his enemies, were determined that if he broke his word with either party, it should not be with *them*. Of the scene of cruelty and bloodshed which ensued, the accounts which have been transmitted are not less uniform and authentic than horrible and disgusting. The only point which is wrapped in obscurity, is, *how far* the French general and his troops were voluntarily or unavoidably spectators of the violation of the treaty which they stood pledged to fulfil. According to some accounts, no escort whatever was furnished to the British garrison. According to others, the escort was a mere mockery, both in respect of the numbers of the French guards, and of their willingness to defend their civilized enemies against their savage friends.¹ It is certain, that the escort, if there was any, proved totally ineffectual: and this acknowledged circumstance, taken in conjunction with the prior occurrences at Oswego, is sufficient to stain the character of Montcalm with a suspicion of treachery and dishonour, which as it has never yet been satisfactorily repelled, seems likely to prove as lasting as his name. No sooner had the garrison marched out, and surrendered their arms in reliance upon the pledge of the French general, than a furious and irresistible attack was made upon them by the Indians, who stripped them both of their baggage and their clothes, and murdered or made pri-

¹ It is not uncommon for the historians of remote events to suppose that passionate contemporary statements *must be* erroneous. Yet surely, it is absurd to expect that scenes of cruelty and injustice should be dispassionately described either by the victims or by their friends.

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1757. soners of all who attempted resistance. At least 1500 persons were thus slaughtered, or carried into captivity. Such was the lot of eighty men belonging to a New Hampshire regiment, of which the complement was no more than two hundred. A number of Indian allies of the English, and who had formed part of the garrison, fared still more miserably. They were seized without scruple by their savage enemies, and perished in lingering and barbarous torture. Of the garrison of Fort William-Henry, little more than a half were enabled to gain the shelter of Fort Edward, in a straggling and wretched condition.

The British colonists were struck with the most painful surprise and alarm at the intelligence of this disaster. Many persons were induced to question the fidelity of General Webb, whose conduct, indeed, though not justly obnoxious to this charge, yet merited the sharpest and most contemptuous censure; and all were inflamed with the highest indignation by the atrocious breach of Montcalm's treaty with the garrison of Fort William-Henry.¹ Webb, roused at length from his lethargy, by personal apprehension, hastily invoked the succour of the states of New England. The call was promptly obeyed; and a portion of the militia of Massachusetts and Connecticut was despatched to check the victorious progress of the French, who, it was feared, would not only make an easy conquest of Fort Edward, but penetrate to Albany. So zealously was this service undertaken by Massachusetts, that a large extent of its own frontier was stripped of its defenders, and left for a time in a very precarious situation. But Montcalm, whether daunted by this vigorous demonstration, or satisfied with the blow which he had struck, and engrossed with the care of improving its propitious influence on the minds of the Indians, refrained from even investing Fort Edward, and made no farther attempt at present to extend the circle of his conquests. The only additional operation of the French, this season, was a predatory enterprise in concert with their Indian allies against the flourishing British settle-

¹ "I was a little child when this transaction took place, and distinctly remember the strong emotions which it every where excited, and which hitherto time has not been able to efface." Dwight. Fenimore Cooper's tale, "The last of the Mohicans," has given an immortal interest to the fate of Fort William-Henry.

ments at German Flats, in the province of New York, and along the Mohawk river, which they utterly wasted with fire and sword. At sea, from a fleet of twenty-one British merchant vessels, homeward-bound from Carolina, they succeeded in making prizes of nineteen, which were loaded with valuable cargoes. Thus ended a campaign, which covered Britain, and her cabinet, and commanders, with disgrace, and filled her colonies with the most gloomy apprehension and discontent.¹ By an act of parliament which was passed this year, the permission formerly granted of importing bar-iron, duty free, from North America, into the port of London, was extended to every port in Great Britain.²

Lord Loudoun concluded, as he had commenced, this year, with a proceeding that gave much offence to the Americans, and showed him capable of exerting, in a dispute with their provincial governments, a greater degree of promptitude and energy than he had been able to display against the common enemy. Governor Pownall having been apprised that a British regiment was to be stationed at Boston, communicated this information to the general court of Massachusetts, which ordered accommodations to be provided for 1,000 men at Castle Island,—in terms which plainly expressed their understanding that this was not a measure of necessary obedience, but a voluntary disbursement on the national account. Soon afterwards, a number of officers who repaired to Boston from Nova Scotia for the purpose of recruiting their regiments, finding that this service was impeded by their residence in barracks at the castle, required the justices of the peace to quarter and billet them upon the citizens in conformity with the practice in the parent state, and the provisions of the act of parliament by which that practice was commanded. The justices, however, refused to comply with this requisition, as they considered that the act of parliament did not extend to America,³

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1757.

Dispute
between
Massachu-
setts and
the British
Com-
mander.

¹ Trumbull. Minot. Belknap. Franklin's Memoirs. Carver's Travels in America. Smollett. Dwight's Travels.

² See Note I. at the end of the volume.

³ A similar opposition to the desire of the government occurred in the parent state about a year before, when the English innkeepers refused to entertain the soldiers of certain Hessian regiments which had been transported to England, in consequence of an apprehended invasion from France,—because they conceived that the act of parliament did not extend to foreign troops. London Annual Register for 1758. Smollett. So little was the liberty of the press understood or enjoyed in England at

- BOOK and that they had no authority to grant billets without the
 X. sanction of the legislative assembly of the province. The
 1757. officers, thereupon, complained to Lord Loudoun, who signified
 in peremptory terms his commands that the justices should
 grant the accommodation that had been required from them;
 declaring that in his opinion the act of parliament *did* extend
 to America, and to every part of his majesty's dominions
 where the public exigencies might oblige him to send troops
 either for the defence of his territories or the security of his
 subjects. His arguments failing to produce any impression
 on the magistracy or legislature of the province, he was pro-
 Nov. 15. voked to assume a still higher tone; and at length acquainted
 Governor Pownall that the patience and gentleness which he
 had hitherto employed were exhausted; that he had no
 leisure for farther parley, but, having already sufficiently con-
 futed the reasoning of the provincials, he was prepared to
 adopt more vigorous measures for ensuring their obedience,
 and preventing the whole continent from being thrown into
 confusion by their factious obstinacy. The justices, he said,
 might yet avert this extremity by immediately performing their
 duty, to which no act of assembly could lend additional sanc-
 tion; and accordingly he had instructed his messenger to re-
 main forty-eight hours in Boston, to ascertain and report if they
 had improved or neglected the opportunity. If the messen-
 ger on his return should report that the provincial authorities
 were still refractory, he protested that he would instantly give
 orders to three battalions of British troops which he had in
 New York, Long Island, and Connecticut, to march upon and
 occupy Boston; and if more were wanting, he had two other
 battalions in New Jersey, besides a body of troops in Penn-
 sylvania, at hand to support them. The provincial authorities,
 though alarmed by this communication, and anxious to avoid
 the collision with which it menaced them, were averse to yield
 to force what they had refused to argument. Hoping at once
 to satisfy Lord Loudoun, and preserve their privileges, the as-
 Dec. 6. sembly passed a law of which the provisions were somewhat,
 though by no means entirely, similar to the act of parliament

this period that the author of the ably written historical part of the Annual Register rarely ventured to designate the statesmen whose conduct he relates more fully than by the initial letters of their names or titles.

in question. This proceeding served rather to increase than to appease the British commander, who immediately signified his displeasure to Pownall; observing that the assembly had no proper concern with the dispute, and that "in time of war, the rules and customs of war must govern;" and acquainting him that the troops had received their orders and were already advancing upon Boston. A rash demonstration: not more odious to the colonists than humiliating to the arms of Britain, whose troops, driven from their outposts, and defeated by the enemy, were now exhibited in the act of a retrograde movement against the people whom they had been sent to protect, and whose militia had in reality protected *them*. The assembly of Massachusetts, animated rather than daunted by this emergency, voted an address to the governor, which breathed the genuine spirit of their forefathers. They again asserted that the act of parliament to which the controversy had reference, did not extend to the British colonies and plantations: and that they had therefore enlarged the barracks at the castle, that the British troops might not be devoid of suitable accommodation, and had also framed a law for the convenience of the recruiting service, with as close conformity to the act of parliament as the nature and condition of the country and its inhabitants would admit. They maintained that the law which they had enacted was requisite to enable the provincial magistrates to execute the powers which it conferred upon them, and declared that they were always willing to enact such regulations when the troops to be quartered or recruited were necessary for their protection and defence. They protested that they were entitled to all the rights and liberties of Englishmen: that by the provincial charter, there was committed to them every power and privilege requisite to their free and unrestricted administration of their own domestic government: that as they were supported under all difficulties and animated to resist an invading enemy to their last breath by the consciousness of enjoying these advantages, so they would be proportionally dispirited and enfeebled, by the loss or diminution of them. In conclusion, they declared that it would doubtless be a great misfortune to them if their adherence to these rights and privileges should deprive them of the esteem of Lord Loudoun; but that they would still

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1757.

have the satisfaction of reflecting that both in their words and actions they had been governed by a sense of duty to his majesty, and of fidelity to the trust reposed in them. This language at once so spirited, temperate, and judicious, probably saved the province from a scene fraught with mischief and peril to its liberties. Expressions of fear or humiliation would have tempted Lord Loudoun to persevere; and demonstrations of resistance would have deprived him of any decent pretext for receding. The address of the assembly was forwarded to him by Governor Pownall, who farther tendered his own personal assurance that the colonists had honestly endeavoured to give to the recruiting service every facility which was compatible with the peculiar circumstances of the country. This assurance, unless interpreted with very considerable latitude, was hardly correct: for, doubtless, with the Americans, the quartering of British regiments in their towns, and the attempts to recruit them from the colonial population were generally unpopular. In every part of America, the superiority arrogated by the British troops over the provincial forces, created disgust: and the puritan and republican sentiments of the New Englanders in particular, were offended by the loose manners of the English officers, and the conversion of their own fellow-citizens into the disciplined stipendiaries of monarchical authority. Lord Loudoun, however, though perfectly aware that no alteration of circumstances had occurred since he had commanded the troops to march, thought proper to lay hold of the overture for reconciliation which had thus been afforded; and accordingly hastened to signify in a despatch to Pownall, that as he could now “depend on the assembly making the point of quarters easy in all time coming,” he had countermanded his previous orders for the military occupation of Boston. He condescended at the same time to make some courteous remarks on the zeal which the province had evinced for his majesty’s service; but withal, he complained that the assembly *seemed willing to enter into a dispute upon the necessity of a provincial law to enforce a British act of parliament*. The communication of Lord Loudoun’s despatch to the general court of Massachusetts, produced from this body a remarkable message to the governor, which at a later period attracted a good deal of controversial criticism: very

Dec. 26.

different meanings being attached to it by the friends of American liberty, and by the individual, and the political partizans of the individual, who composed it. In this message, which was the composition of Thomas Hutchinson, a gentleman of consideration who had filled high official situations in Massachusetts for several years,¹ the two houses (the assembly and council) composing the general court, after thanking the governor for his good offices in their behalf, denied the justice of Lord Loudoun's complaint; and protested that their legislative ordinance had been intended not to give force to an act of parliament, but to regulate a case to which no act of parliament was applicable. "We are willing," they declared, "by a due exercise of the powers of civil government (and we have the pleasure of seeing your excellency concur with us) to remove, as much as may be, all pretence of necessity of military government. Such measures, we are sure, will never be disapproved by the parliament of Great Britain, *our dependence upon which we never had a desire, or thought, of lessening.*" "The authority of all acts of parliament," they added, "which concern the colonies, and extend to them, is ever acknowledged in all the courts of law, and made the rule of all judicial proceedings in the province. There is not a member of the general court, and we know no inhabitant within the bounds of the government, that ever questioned this authority. To prevent any ill consequences which may arise from an opinion of our holding such principles, we now utterly disavow them, as we should readily have done at any time past, if there had been occasion for it; and we pray that his lordship may be acquainted therewith, that we may appear in a true light, and that no impressions may remain to our disadvantage." This document, prepared by a man of considerable ability, who had not yet made or at least declared his election between the interests of British prerogative and American liberty, was afterwards, in consequence of the rupture between the parent state and her colonies, subjected to much ingenious but disproportioned comment and observation: each of two political parties affecting to regard it, as, in some mea-

¹ Hutchinson has already been introduced to our notice. It was he who was afterwards so celebrated and unfortunate as the governor of Massachusetts in the commencement of the revolutionary controversy.

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1757.

State of parties in New England.

sure, a treaty between Britain and America, and each seeking to twist every sentence of it into a deliberate recognition or disclamation on the part of America, of the supremacy claimed by the British parliament. It will lose much of the significance which these reasoners have imputed to it, if we consider what was and what must have been the state of political parties and party feeling in New England at this period. From the first establishment of British colonies in this quarter of America, a contest had prevailed between provincial liberty and the imperial power of Britain. Even before the British Revolution, two parties had sprung up; of which the one counted among its numerous votaries, the jealous, the uncompromising, and the headstrong,—while the other was reputed to number in its smaller phalanx the more prudent, cautious, and timorous friends of American liberty. This distinction of parties was not terminated by the revolution, though it was interrupted for a short time by Lord Bellamont's administration. Various causes had since contributed to perpetuate and even to inflame its violence, and alter its character. The conduct of Shirley had been so popular, even while his language had proclaimed his attachment to royal prerogative, that of late years the progress of political dissension in Massachusetts had been less noted than it deserved. Pownall, attaching himself to the opponents of Shirley, and throwing himself upon them for support, at once incited this party and their adversaries to make a fuller and more unguarded declaration of their sentiments than either had previously ventured to express. The one party was unwilling to believe that its principles tended to promote American slavery: the other (excepting, perhaps, a few bold enthusiasts) durst not believe that its opinions conducted, at least immediately, to American independence. All parties were constrained, in theory, to admit the sovereignty of Britain and its legislature over America: and even those of the Americans who were most forward to claim for themselves *the rights of Englishmen*, recognised, in this expression, the dependence upon Britain incident to a component part and member of the British empire. But the politicians belonging to what was now called the popular party in America, cherished sentiments very discordant with this theory: they regarded their provincial institutions with jealous

attachment, and the power and pretensions of Britain with jealous apprehension. Fear cannot long prevail without begetting anger and hatred; and the policy of Britain had inspired well-grounded fears in the breast of every friend of American liberty. Both in Britain and in America, it was felt, rather than avowed, that the increasing numbers and strength of the colonists demanded some change in the relations that had hitherto subsisted between them and the parent state; and the opposite views on this subject which each party, more or less justly, imputed to the other, served to exasperate the mutual jealousy of the partizans of British prerogative and American liberty. The circumstances and events of the war with France had also contributed to strengthen this opposition of sentiment. While one party regarded with alternate alarm, impatience, and contempt, the formidable discipline and equipment of the British troops, their arrogant assumption of superiority, and their signal inefficiency against the common enemy; the other was struck with awe and admiration by the display of British pomp, profusion, and power; and of these last, if some were additionally impressed with the prudence of moderating every demonstration of American patriotism that might be offensive to Britain, others, doubtless, were inspired with the hope of participating in the profits and dignities which they beheld lavished by that great empire on her servants, and which the prospect of a change in the institutions of America rendered more likely to be attainable by provincial functionaries. In seasons of passion and agitation, the popular party, who formed a great majority of the inhabitants, were apt to express the political sentiments which they cherished, with an energy unguarded by the limits of the political theory which they confessed; but in seasons of more calmness and deliberation, they could not refuse to avow their subjection to British sovereignty, and to disclaim any sentiments inconsistent with this principle. The agitation occasioned by Lord Loudoun's hostile menaces having subsided, it was impossible for the Massachusetts assembly to decline that recognition of their obedience to the parent state which Hutchinson introduced into the message which he composed for them; and they were the more willing to disclaim the imputations of Lord Loudoun, and to avoid the displeasure of the

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1757. British government at this moment, on account of the heavy expenses which the war had imposed upon them, and of which they had yet to expect reimbursement from the justice or liberality of parliament. Yet with all these motives to induce their acquiescence in a demonstration of loyalty and submission to Britain, it was necessary to recommend the message to their adoption by the introduction of a strong protest that their previous conduct had been wholly free from blame.

1758. If Lord Loudoun supposed from the result of this transaction that he had subdued the spirit of the colonists, or even facilitated the exercise of his own authority among them, he was speedily undeceived. Early in the following year, he summoned a convention of the governors of New England and

February. New York to meet him at Hartford, in Connecticut : but finding after some conference that they could not undertake any measure that had not received the sanction of their respective assemblies, he repaired to Boston where his reception gave him plainly to understand that America no longer reposed the slightest confidence in him. Neither Pownall nor the assembly showed any disposition to second his views ; and before they would consent to place the most trifling force at his disposal, the assembly required him to state all the particulars of the service in which he proposed to employ it. Provoked and perplexed by this demand, he was deliberating in what manner to answer it, when an express arrived with intelligence that he was superseded by the king, and that the command of the royal forces was conferred on General Abercrombie.¹

The progress of the war in America had been hitherto signalized by the discomfiture of the English and the triumph of the French :—a result which had been witnessed with increasing resentment and impatience in England. It was a circumstance additionally irritating and mortifying to this people, that the few advantages which had been gained over the French were exclusively due to the colonial troops,—while unredeemed disaster and disgrace had attended all the efforts of the British forces. The events of the last two campaigns had been remarkably unpropitious to Britain, and induced or at least manifestly betokened the decisive preponderance of

¹ Gordon. Mmott. Hutchinson. *Memoirs of an American Lady.*

the power of France in America. By the acquisition of Fort William-Henry, the French obtained entire possession of the lakes Champlain and George: and by the destruction of Oswego, they acquired the dominion of the other lakes which connect the St. Lawrence with the waters of the Mississippi. The first afforded the easiest intercourse between the northern colonies and Canada: the last united Canada to Louisiana. By the continued possession of Fort Du Quesne, they extended their ascendancy over the Indians, and held undisturbed possession of all the country westward of the Allegany mountains. The strength of Britain, unskilfully exerted, was visibly yielding, in this quarter of the world, to the superior vigour and dexterity of her rival, who, with victorious strides was rapidly gaining a position which if it did not infer the entire conquest of the British settlements, at least enabled her to intercept their farther growth, to cramp their commerce, and continually to overawe them, and attack them with advantage. The spirit of the English nation, which had been kindling for some time, was in this emergency aroused to a pitch that could brook no longer the languid and inefficient conduct of the military operations in America. William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, perhaps the most able and accomplished statesman and senator that Great Britain had yet produced, and who had long combated with his powerful rhetoric and majestic eloquence the policy of directing the chief military efforts of England to the continent of Europe, was now, in opposition to the wishes of the king, but in compliance with the irresistible will of the nation, placed at the head of the British ministry. He had received this appointment in the spring of the preceding year; and again, in the autumn, after a short expulsion from office, was reinstated in it more firmly than before. The vigour and capacity of this extraordinary man, whose faculties were equally fitted to rouse the spirit and to wield the strength of a great nation, produced a dawn of hope and joy throughout the whole British empire. His elevation was hailed with enthusiasm as the pledge of retributive triumph to his country: and in effect it speedily occasioned a signal revolution in the fortunes of France and England. Lord Loudoun, whether from his general dilatoriness and inefficiency in the conduct of business, or

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1758. from personal or political dislike to the minister, had conducted his correspondence with him in a very negligent manner : and Pitt is reported to have assigned as the reason for superseding this commander that *he could never ascertain what Lord Loudoun was doing*. The same express which brought the tidings of Loudoun's recall, conveyed a circular letter from Pitt to the provincial governors, acquainting them with the resolution of the British cabinet to send a powerful armament to operate by sea and land against the French in America, and inviting them to raise as numerous levies of auxiliary troops as the population of their respective provinces could afford. Arms, ammunition, tents, provisions, and boats, it was declared, would be furnished by the crown ; and the provincial governors, meanwhile, were desired to levy, clothe, and pay their troops, and appoint the officers of their various regiments. They were assured that it was the king's determination, by the most vigorous and expensive efforts, to repair the losses and disappointments of the last inactive and unhappy campaign, and to repel, by the blessing of God upon his arms, the dangers impending over his people and possessions in North America ; that for this purpose, the war which had been hitherto defensive on the part of the British, was now to be carried into the heart of the enemy's territory ; and that, to encourage the colonists to co-operate in this great and important design, his majesty would recommend to his parliament to grant to the several provinces such compensation for the expenses they might incur, as their active vigour and strenuous efforts should appear justly to merit. At this intelligence, the Americans, and especially the people of New England, were aroused to a generous emulation with the awakened spirit of the parent state : mutual jealousy and distrust was swallowed up for a season in common ardour for the honour of Britain and the safety of America ; and with the most cheerful confidence and alacrity, all the states of New England vied in efforts¹ to strengthen by their co-operation the promised British armament. In Massachusetts, there were raised 7,000 men ; in Connecticut 5,000 ; and in New Hampshire 900. The

¹ In aid of the public funds appropriated by the assembly of Massachusetts, a voluntary subscription for the encouragement of recruits was opened at Boston, where, in one day, 20,000*l.* were subscribed.

numbers of the Rhode Island, New York, and New Jersey levies have not been specified. These troops were ready to take the field early in May, — previously to which time, Admiral Boscawen had arrived at Halifax with a considerable fleet, and 12,000 British troops, conducted by General Amherst, an officer of distinguished skill and ability, and under whom a subordinate command was exercised by General Wolfe, one of the most heroic and magnanimous spirits of the age.¹ Abercrombie, on whom the chief command of the entire forces employed in this quarter of the world, had devolved, was now at the head of the most powerful army that had ever been assembled in America, consisting of 50,000 men, of whom 22,000 were regular troops.² He was a person of slender abilities, and utterly devoid of energy and resolution: and Pitt too late regretted the error he had committed in entrusting a command of such importance to one so little known to him, and who proved so unfit to sustain it.

The increased interest in the affairs of America, which the British people now began to exhibit, and the purpose which the nation and the ministry now cherished, of vigorous and extensive warfare in that quarter, were aided by circumstances of which we must seek for the springs in the particular history of Pennsylvania. Captain Denny, whose appointment to the government of this province we have already noticed, possessed none of that taste for disputation which had distinguished his predecessor, Governor Morris. He was exceedingly desirous to enjoy an easy, quiet administration: but, unfortunately, the attainment of this object was incompatible with his adherence to the instructions which had been communicated to him by the proprietaries. As a substitute for popular measures, he had been directed by his constituents to cultivate the friendship, and, if possible, secure the services of popular men, and particularly of Dr. Franklin, the most respected and distinguished inhabitant of Pennsylvania: but Franklin firmly rejected the ensnaring offers which Denny

¹ The Americans compared Amherst to Fabius, and Wolfe to the Scipios.

“Wolfe, where’er he fought,
Put so much of his heart into his act,
That his example had a magnet’s force.”

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² Trumbull. Minot. Hutchinson. Smollett. Belknap. Holmes.

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1758. addressed to him, and declared that he would accept no favours from the proprietaries, as he was determined to give them no farther support than their measures should justly merit. An administration which commenced in this manner, was not likely to be attended with a satisfactory issue. The old dispute respecting the liability of the proprietary possessions to taxation, was revived with more violence than ever: and a bill having passed the assembly, granting for the service of the king 60,000*l.*, of which 10,000*l.* was to be placed at the command of Lord Loudoun, was disallowed by the governor, because the estates of the proprietaries were not exempted from the assessment which it imposed. Lord Loudoun endeavoured to mediate between the disputants, whose respective pleas were discussed before him by the governor, for himself and his constituents; and by Franklin, on the part of the assembly. Denny declared that the proprietaries held his bond by which he was engaged under a high penalty to conform to all their instructions: yet he was willing to incur the hazard of opposing their will in this instance, if Lord Loudoun would advise him to pass the bill. This, however, Loudoun declined to do; and preferably chose to recommend that the assembly should yield to the wishes of the proprietaries. As the money was urgently wanted for the defence of the Pennsylvanian frontier against the incursions of the French and their Indian allies, Franklin prevailed with the assembly to enact the bill in the terms required by Denny, and recommended by Lord Loudoun, after voting, however, a preliminary resolution that they meant not to relinquish the pretensions they had asserted; but were driven *by force* to suspend the exercise of them on the present occasion. For the more effectual vindication of these pretensions, the assembly forthwith composed a petition to the king, in which they represented the injury which accrued both to his majesty's service in general, and to the province in particular, from the conduct of the proprietaries: and Franklin was despatched to England as the agent of the province, in order to present and support this application. On his arrival at London,¹ he found the success of his mission obstructed by various ob-

¹ July, 1757.

stacles, some of which were created by the art and industry of the parties who had an interest in prejudicing the public mind against the force of his representations. To this end, the English newspapers were continually supplied with paragraphs, bearing the title of *Intelligence from Pennsylvania*, but, in reality, fabricated in London, and conveying the most injurious reflections upon the inhabitants and assembly of the province, who were represented as actuated by selfish motives, and a mutinous and refractory spirit, because they persisted in withstanding the claim of the proprietaries to an exemption from that taxation which was necessary to the defence of their own estates. It was pretended that the quakers still retained the command of the assembly, and that from a real or affected regard to their sectarian principles, they obstructed every preparation even for defensive war, and suffered the frontiers of the province to be desolated by Indian rage and cruelty: and all the inhabitants of the colony, but the quakers in an especial degree, were charged with the blackest ingratitude to the founder of Pennsylvania and his descendants. If William Penn could have foreseen this, he would, perhaps, have regretted, not indeed, his exertions to colonize Pennsylvania, but that, in making those exertions, he had ever proposed to himself and his family any other reward except the consciousness of beneficence, and the glory of the enterprise. The disadvantage arising from this pre-occupation of the public mind, was increased by the strong interest which still prevailed among the politicians of England in the progress of the war in Germany, which rendered it a task of no ordinary difficulty to remove the impressions already produced by interested individuals, against the equitable claims of the inhabitants of a colonial settlement in a distant part of the world. Franklin's ardour, nevertheless, was animated rather than depressed by the prospect of difficulties which it was in the power of reason and genius to overcome; and, assuming the defence of his country's interest, he pursued it with equal zeal, ability, and success. He inserted replies in the public prints to the representations conveyed by the proprietaries: in which he demonstrated with brief and perspicuous statement and reasoning, united with the liveliest wit, and keen but elegant satire, the unjust and sordid policy of the proprietaries, the

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wrongs of Pennsylvania, and the utter groundlessness of the present charges against the quakers, who actually formed but a small proportion of the total population of the province; who no longer retained their ancient ascendant in the provincial assembly; and of whom, indeed, very few were now members of that body. While the graces of his style attracted general attention to these publications, the force of his reasoning, and the spirit of his pleading, produced as general conviction and sympathy. An indignant concern was awakened in the public mind for the inhabitants of a British province, whose efforts to defend themselves against the common enemy, and to co-operate with the general service of the empire, were obstructed by the insolence and selfishness of a single wealthy family. Whether from unwillingness to render the proprietaries irreconcilably hostile to himself, or because he judged such compositions unsuitable to his character of agent for the province, Franklin declined to avow himself the author of them, and caused them to be published either anonymously, or in the name of William Franklin, his illegitimate son. To prevent the necessity of again recurring to this controversy, we shall anticipate a little the pace of time, and here record its issue. While it was still in progress, Governor Denny, foreseeing the defeat of his constituents, ventured to assent to a bill which was framed in conformity with the sentiments of the assembly: but as the proprietaries still refused to make any general concession on this subject, and still persisted in calumniating the provincial assembly, and not only the present, but every generation of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania:—calling the reputation of their illustrious ancestor to their aid, and hoping, from its dazzling glare, to cast a deeper shade on the objects of their malevolence; Franklin determined to make one decisive effort to disabuse the British public; and applied himself to the composition of a treatise, which was not published till the beginning of the year 1759, when it appeared under the title of *A Historical Review of the Constitution of Pennsylvania*. This admirable work, which combines all the felicities of Franklin's genius, and is, perhaps, the most masterly production of his pen, appearing anonymously, was long ascribed to James Ralph, one of the most celebrated political writers of that

period. It was read with the liveliest interest in England, and not only rendered the existing proprietaries generally odious and contemptible to their countrymen, but dissipated considerably the illusion that had prevailed with regard to the unmixed virtue and disinterestedness of the founder of Pennsylvania.¹ Franklin judged that now was the time to present the petition of the provincial assembly, and to have their cause discussed before the privy council; where, in spite of the art and interest that was exerted in behalf of the proprietaries, a judgment was about to have been pronounced against them, when they deemed it expedient to avert this disgrace by proposing an accommodation. They offered to consent to the subjection of their estates to the provincial taxes, provided Franklin would engage for his constituents, that these estates should not be assessed beyond their due proportion. The point in dispute was thus entirely conceded by the stipulation of a condition which never had been, nor could be, refused: and by the address and ability of Franklin, a victory of the highest importance was achieved for his countrymen. The controversy had excited much interest throughout America; and the conduct and issue of it recommended Franklin so highly to the confidence and esteem of the American colonists, that he was, immediately after, appointed agent for the colonies of Massachusetts, Maryland, and Georgia. It was a circumstance additionally gratifying to the people of Pennsylvania, that Denny was removed in the year 1759, from the government of the province, and replaced by James Hamilton, whom we have seen once before in the possession of this office.

But a consequence, earlier and more important than that which we have now considered, though collateral to the proper object of Franklin's mission from America, resulted

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Political exertions of Franklin in England.

¹ Mr. Clarkson, in his *Life of William Penn*, has taken some notice of this production of Franklin; on which occasion he has been betrayed into a very strange mistake by erroneous information and too partial regard for the quaker patriarch. He states that the object of the publication was to obtain a change of the provincial government from proprietary to royal, and that the failure of this design "laid the foundation of his (Franklin's) animosity to Great Britain, which was so conspicuous afterwards." This is an entire misrepresentation, into which nothing but erroneous materials and the jealousy of Mr. Clarkson's affection for Penn, could have betrayed him. Franklin's design, as we have seen, was perfectly different, and instead of failing, it was crowned with complete success. See Note II. at the end of the volume.

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from his residence in England at this period. Approximated to each other, and inhabiting the same metropolis, were now, at an interesting crisis of British and American history, the most illustrious statesman and minister in England, and the most distinguished philosopher and politician of America. It might naturally be supposed that a close and intimate intercourse must have arisen between these remarkable men, and that, from their united genius and deliberation, the wisest and most masterly scheme of British policy must have been engendered. Pitt was strongly opposed to the system which had hitherto staked so much of the blood and treasure of England on the issue of German hostilities,¹ sometimes disgraceful,—always barren of real advantage and glory to England; and Franklin, whether from the efficacy of Pitt's eloquence, or from his own unassisted meditation, had espoused the same opinion. Both were united in thinking that more energetic hostilities should be pursued in America; but the precise point to which hostilities in this quarter should actually be pushed, in order to vindicate the honour without compromising the interest of Britain, was a question on which these men might be expected to entertain different opinions. From the extent and precision of political information, for which Pitt was so highly renowned, it is impossible to suppose that he was unacquainted with the doubts which had been openly expressed, both in Britain and America, of the expediency of attempting the entire conquest of the French settlements in the new world; and it is equally incredible that Franklin was ignorant of the conviction that prevailed with many American politicians, that this conquest would destroy the firmest pledge which Britain possessed of the obedience of her trans-atlantic colonies.² Pitt, undoubtedly, would never have consented to embrace any measure, of which the result, however flattering in immediate appearance, could have seemed to him probably to threaten, or even materially to facilitate the dismemberment of the British empire; and Franklin, we may almost with equal certainty declare, was at this time, and long after, strongly opposed to the idea, that either Britain or

¹ Some time after Pitt became minister, his views of the interest of Britain in German wars underwent a very signal modification.

² *Ante*, chap. ii.

America could derive advantage from a political separation. He used to compare the British empire to a grand porcelain vase, of which the fractional parts, however equally or unequally distributed, could never possess the same magnificent value which had belonged to their incorporation and combined existence. But Pitt, wielding all the resources of Britain, was liable to be seduced by views of immediate glory: and Franklin, however guiltless he may have been of projecting, at this period, the independence of America, cannot be supposed to have contemplated, as cautiously and jealously as a native Englishman would have done, events, which, by strengthening America, must necessarily render her independence more easily attainable. Pitt was incited by principle, inclination, and interest, to prosecute the war in America more actively than his official predecessors. Still, it would seem that he doubted the wisdom, and, perhaps, hesitated between the wisdom and the glory of an entire subjugation of the French empire in America. Franklin, on the contrary, had been conducted by his own reasoning, or enticed by patriotic zeal and passion, to the conclusion, that the interests, both of Britain and America, would be promoted by such conquest; and yet it is certain that his opinion was materially affected by the consideration, more or less just, which he entertained, of the effect which this enterprise would produce on the minds of the British colonists towards their own parent state. It was, he declared, his opinion, that the independence of the British colonies, however reasonable or probable, was an event too distant to be permitted to influence present calculations; that discontent and disaffection were maintained in British America by the vicinity, the power, and the encroachments of the French; that loyalty to the parent state would be promoted by the removal of this cause of apprehension and anxiety. Pitt, who was, doubtless, aware of Franklin's eminence in America as a politician, and of his celebrity in the world as a philosopher, appears to have regarded him with sincere, but cold and condescending esteem; while Franklin, as yet a new actor in great and brilliant scenes, biassed, partly by the influence of distinctions, to which he was unaccustomed, and partly by an excess of admiration, incident to real genius, contemplated Pitt with unbounded veneration and

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respect. Yet, while Franklin, with that simple dignity and confidence which betokens a truly superior mind, cherished an ardent desire to see, and converse with, the British minister, Pitt, governed by the haughty, aristocratical prejudices, which he cherished at least as forcibly as he did the principles of liberty, regarded an American post-master, and provincial agent, as a person with whom he could not associate, without compromising his own dignity. All the efforts of Franklin to obtain an interview with Pitt, proved unsuccessful, and he was obliged to content himself with the complimentary intelligence, that this minister considered him *a respectable person*, and with the more solid advantage of communicating with him through the medium of two of his under-secretaries. Pitt, though too proud to converse personally with Franklin, was too wise to permit the opportunity of consulting so able a politician to pass wholly unimproved. Perhaps, if he had freely and directly admitted Franklin's conversation, the strain and tenor which he imparted to the policy of Britain, had been different: his natural sagacity, aided by the advantage of close and easy intercourse with a mind as enlarged as his own, might have enabled him to detect some fallacy in the reasoning by which the conquest of Canada was recommended. But, communicating with this acute and ingenious, though doubtless passionate American, only through the medium of his own subordinate officers, he was, perhaps, too readily, impressed with the idea that that acquisition would conduce to the general benefit of the British empire. An immediate conquest of the settlements of the French seemed to be requisite to the vindication of British honour. How far such conquest, if effected, ought, in policy, to be preserved, was a more perplexing question: and on the whole, the British minister was rather animated to prosecute hostilities, than fixed in decisive purpose with regard to their ultimate issue by his correspondence with Franklin.¹

Quitting the cabinet for the field, we now resume the progress of the war in America. The conquest of Canada was the object to which the most ardent wishes of the British colonists were directed: but they quickly perceived that the

¹ Proud. Smollett. Franklin's Memoirs.

gratification of this hope, if ever realised, must be deferred at least till the succeeding year; as the cabinet of England had determined, for the protection of the English commerce from the cruisers and privateers of France, to employ a considerable part of the forces in an attack upon Louisburg, and to commence its new system of operations by the reduction of that place. Three expeditions were proposed for this year: the first, against Louisburg; the second, against Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and the third against Fort Du Quesne. In prosecution of the first of these enterprises, Admiral Boscawen, sailing from Halifax with a fleet of twenty ships of the line and eighteen frigates, conveying an army of 14,000 men, conducted by Amherst, and of which but a small proportion were provincial troops, arrived before Louisburg on the second of June. The garrison of this place, commanded by the Chevalier de Drucourt, an intrepid and experienced officer, was composed of two thousand five hundred regulars, aided by six hundred militia. The condition of the harbour, which was secured by five ships of the line, one fifty-gun ship, and five frigates, three of which were sunk across the mouth of the bason, rendered it necessary for the invaders to land at some distance from the town. From the defensive precautions which the enemy had adopted, this operation was attended with considerable difficulty; but at length by the daring resolution and intrepidity of General Wolfe, it was accomplished with success and little loss: and the troops having been landed at the creek of Cormoran, and the artillery stores brought on shore, Wolfe was detached with two thousand men to seize a post which had been occupied by the enemy at the Lighthouse-point, and which was calculated to afford advantage to the besiegers by enabling them severely to annoy the ships in the harbour and the fortifications of the town. On the approach of Wolfe, the post was abandoned, and there the British soon erected a formidable battery. Approaches were also made on the opposite side of the town: and the siege was pressed with a resolute activity characteristic of the English commanders, and yet with a severe and guarded caution inspired by the strength of the place and the reputation of its governor and garrison, who fully supported the high idea that had been entertained of them, by the skilful

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and obstinate valour which they exerted in their defence. In all the operations of the siege, the dauntless courage and indefatigable energy of Wolfe were signally pre-eminent. A heavy cannonade having been maintained against the town and harbour, a bomb, exploding, set fire to one of the large ships which soon blew up; and the flames were communicated to two others which shared the same fate. The English admiral in consequence of this success, despatched boats manned with six hundred men into the harbour to make an attempt during the night on the two ships of the line which still remained to the enemy. In spite of a tremendous fire of cannon and musketry, the assailants accomplished this perilous feat; and one of the ships which happened to be aground was destroyed, while the other was towed off in triumph.¹ By this gallant exploit the English gained complete possession of the harbour; and already more than one practicable breach in the works had been produced by their batteries. The governor now judged the place no longer defensible, and offered to capitulate: but his propositions were refused; and it was required that the garrison should surrender at discretion, or abide the issue of an assault by sea and land. These humiliating terms, though at first rejected, were afterwards acceded to: and Louisburg, with all its artillery, provisions, and military stores, together with Isle Royale, St. John's, and their dependencies, were surrendered on the 26th of July to the English; who, without farther difficulty took entire possession of the island of Cape Breton. Four hundred of the besiegers, and fifteen hundred of the garrison were killed or wounded during the siege; and the town of Louisburg was nearly reduced to a heap of ruins. In this town the conquerors found two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, eighteen mortars, and a vast quantity of stores and ammunition. The inhabitants of Cape Breton were sent to France in English ships; but the French garrison and naval forces were carried prisoners of war to England, where the unwonted tidings of victory and conquest were hailed with demonstra-

Conquest
of Cape
Breton.

¹ The renowned Captain Cook, then serving as a petty officer on board of a British ship of war, co-operated in this exploit, and wrote an account of it to a friend in England. That he had honourably distinguished himself, may be inferred from his promotion to the rank of lieutenant in the royal navy, which followed soon after.

tions of the liveliest triumph and joy. The French colours taken at Louisburg were carried in grand procession from Kensington Palace to the Cathedral of St. Paul's; and a form of thanksgiving was appointed to be used on the occasion in all the churches of England. The sentiments of the parent state were re-echoed in America; where the people of New England, more especially, partook the warmth of an exultation that revived the glory of their own previous achievement in the first conquest of Cape Breton.¹

Before this conquest was completed, the expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point occurred to chequer the new and victorious career of the British arms in America. This enterprise was conducted by General Abercrombie, who on the 5th of July embarked his troops on Lake George in a hundred and twenty-five whale-boats and nine hundred batteaux. His army consisted of sixteen thousand effective men, of whom nine thousand were provincials, and was attended by a formidable train of artillery. Among other officers, he was accompanied by Lord Howe, a young English nobleman who exhibited the most promising military talents, and whose valour, virtue, courtesy, and good sense had wonderfully endeared him both to the English and the provincial troops. The mass of mankind are always prone to regard with veneration those titular distinctions which, having no real substance, afford unbounded scope to fanciful apprehension: and almost universal suffrage is won, when the possession of such lofty though unsolid pretensions, seems to justify them by merit, and mitigate them by generosity, instead of arrogating them with stern insolence, or reposing on them with indolent pride. From the day of his arrival in America, Lord Howe had conformed himself and caused his regiment to conform to the style of service which the country required. He was the first to encounter the danger to which he conducted others, and to set the example of every sacrifice which he required them to incur. While the strict discipline which he maintained commanded respect, the kind and graceful benevolence of his manners conciliated affection. He was the idol and soul of the army. The first operations of Abercrombie were directed against Ti-

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¹ Minot. Trumbull. Smollett. Annual Register for 1758. Holmes.

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July 6. Lord Howe with a number of his soldiers fell. The suddenness of the assault, the terror inspired by the Indian yell, and the grief and astonishment created by the death of Lord Howe, excited a general panic among the British regulars: but the provincials, who flanked them, and were better acquainted with the mode of fighting practised by the enemy, stood their ground and soon defeated them, with a slaughter, compared to which, the loss of the British, in point of numbers, was inconsiderable. But the death of Lord Howe had depressed the spirit and enfeebled the councils of the army; and to this circumstance its subsequent misfortunes were mainly ascribed. The loss of this brave and accomplished officer was generally deplored in America: and the assembly of Massachusetts, not long after, caused a monument to be erected to his memory in Westminster abbey.¹

July 7. The British forces, without farther opposition, took pos-

¹ The popularity of his name has been, perhaps, impaired by the circumstance, that his brother, Sir William Howe, commanded the British army in the subsequent revolutionary war in America. It was doubted, and is still doubtful, whether Lord Howe fell by the fire of the enemy, or by a misdirected shot from some unhappy hand among his own confused and startled soldiers.

session of a post situated within two miles of Ticonderoga, and previously occupied by an advanced guard commanded by Colonel Bradstreet, an officer distinguished by his courage, activity, and intelligence. The general, understanding that the garrison at Ticonderoga consisted of about six thousand men, and that a reinforcement of three thousand more was daily expected, resolved on an immediate assault of the place. He ordered his engineer to reconnoitre the position and entrenchments of the enemy; and, trusting to a hasty survey and rash report upon their weakness, embraced the dangerous purpose of forcing them without the assistance of cannon. The troops having received orders to march up briskly, to rush upon the enemy's fire, and to reserve their own until they had passed a breastwork which was represented as easily superable, advanced to the attack with the highest intrepidity. But unlooked for impediments resisted their progress. The breastwork proved much more formidable than had been represented; and in front of it, to a considerable distance, trees had been felled with their branches protruding outward and sharpened to a point; by which obstruction the assailants were not only retarded in their advance, but, becoming entangled among the boughs, were exposed in helpless embarrassment and disorder to a galling and destructive fire. The provincials, meanwhile, who had been posted behind the regulars, inflamed with impatience, and not sufficiently restrained by discipline, could not be prevented from firing: and, notwithstanding their expertness as marksmen, their fire was supposed to have proved more fatal to their friends than their enemies. This sanguinary conflict was protracted during four hours. Of the assailants there were killed and wounded about two thousand men, including four hundred of the provincials. One-half of a highland regiment commanded by Lord John Murray, with twenty-five of its officers, were either killed or desperately wounded. The loss of the enemy, meanwhile, covered as they were from danger, was very inconsiderable. At length, Abercrombie gave the signal to desist from the desperate assault; and, to an ill-concerted enterprise, succeeded a retreat no less precipitate and injudicious. The British army, still amounting to nearly fourteen thousand men, greatly outnumbered the enemy: and if the artillery had been brought up to their

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Repulse at
Ticonde-
roga.

B O O K assistance, might have overpowered with little difficulty the French forces and their defences at Ticonderoga. But Abercrombie, dismayed by his disastrous repulse, and heedless of the remonstrances of the provincial officers, carried the army back in a hurried march to the southern extremity of Lake George. Next to the defeat of Braddock, this was the most disgraceful catastrophe that had befallen the arms of Britain in America.

As Abercrombie seemed to be destitute of the vigour requisite to repair his misfortune, Colonel Bradstreet conceived the idea of at least counterbalancing it by an effort in a different quarter; and accordingly suggested to the general a substitutional expedition which he offered to conduct against Fort Frontignac. Embracing this proposal, and willingly relinquishing his designs against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, Abercrombie despatched Bradstreet at the head of three thousand men, of whom all but the trifling handful of a hundred and fifty-five were provincials, together with eight pieces of cannon and three mortars, to attempt the reduction of Fort Frontignac. Bradstreet, marching to Oswego, embarked on

Aug. 25. Lake Ontario, and on the evening of the 25th of August, landed within a mile of the fort. Before the lapse of two days, his batteries were opened at so short a distance, that almost every shot took effect; and the French commandant, finding

Aug. 27. the place untenable, was compelled to surrender at discretion. The Indian auxiliaries of the French having previously deserted, the prisoners were but an hundred and ten. But the captors found in the fort sixty pieces of cannon, sixteen small mortars, together with a prodigious collection of military stores, provisions, and merchandize. Nine armed vessels also fell into their hands. Bradstreet, after destroying the fort and vessels and such stores as he could not carry away, returned to cheer the main army with this ray of success.

Reduction
of Fort
Frontig-
nac—

The reduction of Fort Frontignac facilitated the enterprise against Fort Du Quesne, of which the garrison awaited, from the post thus unexpectedly subdued, a large reinforcement of stores and ammunition. General Forbes, to whom the expedition against Fort du Quesne was entrusted, had marched with his troops, early in July, from Philadelphia; but his progress was so much retarded by various obstructions, that

it was not until two months after that the Virginian forces, commanded by Colonel Washington, were summoned to join the British army at Ray's Town. Among other provincial troops, which participated in this expedition, was a detachment of the militia of North Carolina, conducted by Major Waddell, a brave and active officer, and highly respected inhabitant of that state, and accompanied by a body of Indian auxiliaries. Before the combined army advanced from Ray's Town, Major Grant, an English officer, was detached with eight hundred men, partly British, and partly provincials, to reconnoitre the condition of Fort Du Quesne, and of the adjacent country. Rashly inviting an attack from the French garrison, this detachment was surrounded by the enemy; and, after a gallant, but ineffectual defence, in which three hundred men were killed and wounded, Major Grant and nineteen other officers were taken prisoners. It was with the utmost difficulty that the French were able to rescue these officers from the sanguinary ferocity of their own Indian auxiliaries, who butchered the greatest part of the wounded and the prisoners. The whole residue of the detachment would have shared the same fate, if Captain Bullet, a provincial officer, with the aid of a small troop of Virginians, had not, partly by stratagem, and partly by the most desperate efforts of valour, checked the advance of the pursuing Indians, and finally conducted the fugitives to the main army, by a skilful, but protracted and laborious retreat. General Forbes, with this army, amounting to at least eight thousand men, at length advanced against Fort Du Quesne, but, in spite of the most strenuous exertions, was not able to reach it till near the close of November. Enfeebled by fatigue, the British now approached the scene of Braddock's defeat, and beheld the field on which the mouldering corpses of Grant's troops still lay, unburied. Anxious to know the condition of the fort and the position of the enemy's troops, General Forbes offered a reward of forty pounds to any man who would make prisoner of a hostile Indian. This service was performed by a sergeant in the North Carolina militia; and the intelligence that was obtained from the captive showed Forbes that his labours were already crowned with success. The approach of the British force, which seems to have been attended with all those pre-

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1758.
Septem-
ber.

BOOK cautions, of which the neglect had proved so fatal to Brad-
 X. dock, had struck the Indians with such terror, that they
 1758. withdrew from the assistance of the garrison of Fort Du
 Quesne, declaring that the Great Spirit had evidently with-
 drawn his favour from the French, and his protection from
 their fortress; and the French themselves, infected with the
 fears, and weakened by the desertion of their allies, as well as
 disappointed of the stores which they had expected to have
 obtained from Fort Frontignac, judged their post untenable,
 Nov. 24. and, abandoning it on the evening before the arrival of Forbes'
 army, made their escape in boats down the Ohio. The
 Nov. 25. British now took unresisted possession of this important
 and Fort Du Ques-
 ne. fortress, which had been the immediate occasion of the exist-
 ing war; and, in compliment to the great statesman, whose
 administration had already given a new complexion to the
 fortunes of their country, they bestowed upon it the name of
 Pittsburg. No sooner was the British flag hoisted on its
 walls, than deputations arrived from the numerous tribes of
 the Ohio Indians, tendering their adherence and submission
 to the victors. With the assistance of some of these Indians,
 a party of British soldiers were sent to explore the thickets
 where Braddock had been attacked, and to bestow the rites of
 sepulture on the bones of their countrymen which yet strewed
 the ground.¹ General Forbes, having concluded treaties of
 friendship with the Indians, left a garrison of provincials in
 the fort, and was reconducting his troops to Philadelphia,
 when he died, worn out by the fatigues which he had
 undergone.

The French, in concert with some of their Indian allies, had
 made an attempt in the autumn to subdue a frontier fort, and
 ravage a frontier settlement of New England. Their design,
 which the absence of the provincial forces, engaged in the
 distant operations of the campaign, nearly rendered successful,
 was, however, defeated by the vigorous and spirited exertions
 of Governor Pownall, who, for his conduct on this occasion,
 received from Pitt a letter expressive of the king's approbation.

The campaign, which had thus terminated, was, in the
 main, highly honourable and propitious to Britain, notwith-

¹ See Note III. at the end of the volume.

standing the disgraceful defeat that had been sustained at Ticonderoga. In consequence of this last event, Abercrombie, as he expected, was deprived of a command which he no longer desired to retain; and Amherst was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in America.¹ If France, whose American policy had been the offspring of a vaulting unmeasured ambition, was capable of profiting by the lessons she received in this campaign, perhaps the repulse of the British at Ticonderoga was an unfortunate circumstance for her. It was certainly unfortunate, if it deluded her with the hope of pursuing, with advantage, the contest which she had provoked; and not less so in its influence on a powerful and indignant foe, in the first moments of vindictive exertion. It inspired the rulers of Britain with the same persuasion which prevailed among the Americans, that more must yet be done to redeem the honour of the British empire; and it stimulated the particular appetite, which the English people had now contracted, for trophies and conquests in America. Meanwhile, the increased vigour and success with which the arms of Britain were exerted in other parts of the world, rendered it the more difficult for France to afford succour to her American possessions.

Among other advantages which the British reaped from the late campaign, was the influence which it exercised on the sentiments of a great number of the Indian tribes, who began to suspect that by the civilities and vaunting representations of the French, they had been induced to espouse a cause which fortune was likely to forsake. Many of these savages had hastily concluded from the polite, obliging manners of the French in peace, and their fiery energy in war, that of the two European races, they were the most eligible friends, and the most formidable enemies: but their opinion began to waver from a longer experience of the justice of British traffic, and the steadiness of British valour. In the close of this year, a grand assembly of Indian nations was held at Easton, about ninety miles from Philadelphia, and a formal treaty of friendship concluded between Great Britain and fifteen In-

CHAP.
V.
1758.

Effects of
the British
successes
upon the
Indians.

¹ Burk. Wynne. Trumbull. Hutchinson. Smollett. Minot. Williamson. Campbell.

B O O K
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1758.

dian tribes, inhabiting the vast territory extending from the Apalachian mountains to the lakes. The conferences were managed, on the part of Britain, by Denny, the governor of Pennsylvania, and Francis Bernard (successor of Belcher, who had died in 1757), the governor of New Jersey, together with Sir William Johnson, the royal superintendent of Indian affairs, a number of the members of council and assembly of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and a great many citizens of Philadelphia, chiefly of the quaker persuasion. Much time was spent by the British commissioners in accommodating various feuds and disputes that had recently arisen or been exasperated between the tribes with which they contracted. The Indians also demonstrated a surprising tenacity and precision of memory, in enumerating every past and unsatisfied cause of offence which had been afforded to any of their race by the English; and a feudal nicety and exactitude in defining the commutative value which every such claim should bear. At length, after conferences which endured for eighteen days, every article of dispute was satisfactorily adjusted: and the treaty of friendship which ensued, gave so much contentment to all parties, that the Indians promised to use their utmost endeavours to extend its influence still more widely among their race. There was purchased by the British a tract of about three thousand acres of land, which received the name of Brotherton, and was vested in the persons of the New Jersey commissioners and their successors, in trust, for the use of the Indian natives of New Jersey, southward of the river Rariton.¹

In the course of this year, a petition was presented to the British House of Commons, by Robert Hunter Morris, formerly governor of Pennsylvania, who represented, that as no salt was made in the British colonies in America, they were reduced to depend upon a precarious supply of that commodity from foreigners; and that he was now willing to undertake the manufacture of marine salt, at a moderate price, in one of those colonies, at his own hazard and charge, provided he could be secured in the enjoyment of the profits which the work might produce, for such a term of years as

¹ S. Smith. Wynne.

the house might deem a proper and adequate compensation C H A P. V.
 for the risk of so great an undertaking. This petition was re-
 ferred to a committee, which, however, made no report:—"A
 circumstance," says an ingenious English historian, "not
 easily accounted for, unless we suppose the House of Com-
 mons were of opinion, *that such an enterprise might contribute*
towards rendering our colonies too independent of their mother
country." But though royal and parliamentary patronage of
 schemes for the improvement of the condition of the Ameri-
 can colonists was denied, a liberal encouragement was afforded
 by British affluence and generosity, exerted through humbler,
 though, perhaps, more proper organs, to the development of
 American genius and enterprise. A society, which had been
 formed at London, some years before, for the encouragement
 of arts and manufactures in Britain, now extended its notice
 and premiums to the colonial possessions of the parent state
 in America.¹ 1758.

A statute, analogous to the bankrupt law of England, was
 enacted this year by the assembly of Massachusetts, where a
 great many merchants had been plunged into a state of in-
 solvency by the war: but it was disallowed by the king as
 unsuitable to the circumstances of a community where a great
 majority of the debts ordinarily contracted by the people,
 were due, not to their own fellow-citizens, but to creditors re-
 sident in Europe.²

The British nation, first aroused by resentment, which was
 not yet satiated, and now inflamed with success and ambi-
 tion, regarded the recent American campaign as the pledge
 and harbinger of farther and more signal triumph in the same
 quarter. Whatever hesitation to attempt the total overthrow
 of the French colonial empire might yet linger in the minds
 of the ministers, was overpowered by the force of the predi-
 camment in which they were placed, and the difficulty of
 pausing in a career of immediate conquest and glory. The
 parliament addressed the throne in terms that denoted the
 highest approbation of the measures and policy of the cabinet:
 they applauded the recent conduct of the war, and pledged
 themselves zealously and cheerfully to support its farther pro- 1759.

¹ Smolleff. See Note IV. at the end of the volume.

² Minot. See Note V. at the end of the volume.

B O O K

X.

1759.

Plan of the
campaign
of 1759.

secution. In reply to a message from the king, recommending to their consideration the vigorous and spirited efforts which his faithful subjects in North America had exerted in defence of his rights and possessions, they voted two hundred thousand pounds for enabling his majesty to give proper compensation to the several American provinces, for the expenses they had incurred in levying and maintaining troops for the public service. One sentiment of eagerness to advance the glory of England, and humble or destroy the American empire of France, pervaded every part of the British dominions: and the officers by whom the forces serving in America were now commanded, were equally zealous and qualified to promote their country's wishes, and enlarge her renown. The campaign which they had concerted, and now prepared to commence, embraced the great design of an entire and immediate conquest of Canada: and the plan of operations by which this object was to be pursued, was, that three powerful armies should enter Canada by different routes, and attack, at nearly the same time, all the strong holds of the French in that country. At the head of one division of the army, consisting principally of English troops, and aided by an English fleet, General Wolfe, who had gained so much distinction at the recent siege of Louisburg, was to ascend the river St. Lawrence, as soon as its navigation should cease to be obstructed by ice, and attempt the siege of Quebec, the capital of Canada. General Amherst, the commander-in-chief, was to march against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and after reducing these places, and establishing a naval force on Lake Champlain, was to penetrate, by the way of Richelieu river and the St. Lawrence, to Quebec, in order to form a junction with the forces of Wolfe. The third army, conducted by General Prideaux, and consisting chiefly of provincials, reinforced by a strong body of friendly Indians, assembled by the influence and placed under the special command of Sir William Johnson, was to attack the French fort near the Falls of Niagara, which commanded, in a manner, all the interior parts of North America; and was a key to the whole continent. As soon as this fort was carried, Prideaux was to embark on Lake Ontario, descend the river St. Lawrence, make himself master of Montreal, and then unite his forces with those of Wolfe

and Amherst. General Stanwix commanded a smaller detachment of troops, which was employed in reducing the French forts on the Ohio, and scouring the banks of Lake Ontario. It was expected that if Prideaux's operations, in addition to their own immediate object, should not facilitate either of the two other capital undertakings, it would probably (as Niagara was the most important post which the French possessed in this quarter of America) induce them to draw together all their troops which were stationed on the borders of the lakes in order to attempt its relief, which would leave the forts on these lakes exposed: and this effect was actually produced.¹

Eager as the Americans were to co-operate with the martial purposes of Britain, they found it difficult to keep pace with her profuse expenditure; and some reluctance was now expressed in New England to the additional levies which were required from the provincial governments for the operations of this campaign. They had been assured in the commencement of the preceding year, that a single campaign would, doubtless, be sufficient to terminate the war. The same assurance, now repeated, was no longer able to produce the same effect. They were already labouring under the weight of heavy burdens occasioned by their former exertions: the compensations decreed to them by the British parliament from time to time, were far inferior to their actual expenses; and much disgust and discouragement had been created by the delays, certainly impolitic, though perhaps not easily avoided, by which the public offices in England had retarded

¹ "By so many different attacks," says Trumbull, "it was designed, as far as possible, to divide and distract the enemy, and to prevent their making an effectual defence at any place."—"A plan was pursued," says Minot, "to assail the French in America in every direction, and by a connexion of all the parts, to transfuse throughout the whole system the effect of the success, which could not well fail to happen in some quarter." I pretend to no better judgment of the merit of military plans than a civilian may presume to form; but have no hesitation in expressing my concurrence with the opinion of Smollet (a far superior judge in such matters) that the plan of this campaign was a great deal too arduous and multifarious. Though crowned in every part with partial success, it miscarried in some capital points; and without the heroic efforts and astonishing success of Wolfe, the campaign would have been regarded as a failure. We are assured that the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong, but that time and chance govern all things. In war, so far does (apparent) chance prevail, that one of the most successful commanders in the world, with a grandeur of sentiment which showed that his genius was superior to his fortune, chose to be designated by the title of *Sylla the Fortunate*. "*In rebus bellicis*," says Tacitus, "*maxime dominatur fortuna*."

BOOK the apportionment and payment of the parliamentary grants.
 X. It was unwise of the British government, while pursuing a
 1759. course of which the policy required to be justified by the hope
 of promoting at once the advantage and the grateful loyalty
 of the Americans, to suffer any thing to be done which could
 diminish their sense of the obligation. Britain would, per-
 haps, have adopted a wiser and more magnanimous course, if
 she had arrogated to herself the whole conduct, expense, and
 honour of the war. By the course which she actually pur-
 sued, she trained many of the colonists to military exercises,
 and familiarized them with the idea of a contest with one of
 the most powerful empires in Europe ; she relieved them all
 from the dangers of a French vicinity ; and she disgusted
 them by the scanty and dilatory compensation by which she
 repaid their exertions. Connecticut, with some difficulty,
 was induced to refurnish her last year's contingent of five
 thousand men. In the records of this colony, we find for the
 first time the name of Israel Putnam, one of the most heroic
 and determined patriots in America, as the colonel of one of
 the Connecticut regiments. Massachusetts at first declined
 to raise more than five thousand men ; but at length, in com-
 pliance with the instances of General Amherst, who was much
 respected by the colonists, was persuaded to furnish an addi-
 tional force of fifteen hundred.¹ New Hampshire, however,
 surpassed its exertions of the preceding year, and raised a
 thousand men.²

July 22. Early in the spring, Amherst transferred his head quarters
 from New York to Albany, where his troops, amounting to
 twelve thousand men, were assembled in the end of May :
 yet the summer was far advanced before the state of his prepa-
 rations enabled him to cross Lake George ; and it was not till
 the close of July, that he reached Ticonderoga. At first the
 enemy seemed determined to defend the fortress, and Colonel
 Townsend, a brave and accomplished English officer, who
 advanced to reconnoitre it, was killed by a cannon ball. But
 perceiving the determined yet cautious resolution, and the
 overwhelming force with which Amherst was preparing to

¹ See Note VI. at the end of the volume.

² Annual Register for 1759. Smollett. Minot. Trumbull. Wynn. Belknap.

undertake the siege,—and having received strict orders to retreat from post to post towards the centre of operations at Quebec, rather than incur the risk of being made prisoners, the garrison, a few days after, dismantled a part of the fortifications, and evacuating Ticonderoga, during the night, retired to Crown Point. Amherst, directly occupying the important post thus abandoned, which effectually covered the frontiers of New York, and secured himself a safe retreat, caused the works to be repaired, and allotted a strong garrison for its defence. Thence advancing to Crown Point, with a cautious and guarded circumspection which the event showed to have been unnecessary, but which he was induced to observe by remembering how fatal a confident security had proved to other British commanders in this quarter of the world, he was enabled to occupy this fortress with the same facility which had attended his first acquisition, by a farther retrogression of the enemy who retired from his approach, and entrenched themselves in a fort at Isle Aux Noix, on the northern extremity of Lake Champlain. At this place he was informed that the French had collected three thousand five hundred men, with a numerous train of artillery, and possessed the additional resource of four large armed vessels on the lake. Amherst exerted the utmost activity to create a naval force, without which it was impossible for him to attack the enemy's position; and with a sloop and a radeau, which were built with great despatch, he succeeded in destroying two of their vessels,—an achievement, in which the bold adventurous spirit of Colonel Putnam was conspicuously displayed; but a succession of storms, and the advanced season of the year, compelled him at length to postpone the farther prosecution of his scheme of operations. He established his troops in winter quarters at Crown Point, in the end of October, and confined his attention to strengthening the works of this fortress and of Ticonderoga. Thus the first of the three simultaneous expeditions embraced in the plan of this year's campaign, though attended with successful and important consequences, failed to produce the full result which had been anticipated by its projectors. Amherst, so far from being able to penetrate into Canada, and form a junction with Wolfe, was unable to maintain the slightest communication with him; and only by a

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1759.

Reduction
of Ticon-
deroga —

and Crown
Point.

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X.
1759.

letter from Montcalm in relation to an exchange of prisoners, obtained information that Wolfe was besieging Quebec. With the army which undertook the siege of Niagara, however, his communication was uninterrupted; and intelligence of its success had reached him before he advanced from Ticonderoga against Crown Point.

While Amherst's army was thus employed, General Prideaux, with his European, American, and Indian troops, embarking on Lake Ontario, advanced without loss or opposition to the fortress at Niagara, which he reached about the middle of July, and promptly invested on all sides. He was conducting his approaches with great vigour, when on the twentieth of the month, during a visit he made to the trenches, he lost his life by the unfortunate bursting of a cohorn. Amherst was no sooner informed of this accident, than he detached General Gage from Ticonderoga to assume the command of Prideaux's army: but it devolved, in the mean time, upon Sir William Johnson, who exercised it with a success that added a new laurel to the honours which already adorned his name. The enemy, alarmed with the apprehension of losing a post of such importance, resolved to make an effort for its relief. From their forts of Detroit, Venango, and Presque Isle, they drew together a force of twelve hundred men, which, with a troop of Indian auxiliaries, were detached under the command of an officer named D'Aubry, with the purpose of raising the siege, or reinforcing the garrison of Niagara. Johnson, who had been pushing the siege even more vigorously than his predecessor, having learned the design of the French to relieve the garrison, made instant preparation to intercept it. As they approached, he ordered his light infantry, supported by a body of grenadiers and other regulars, to occupy the road from Niagara falls to the fortress, by which the enemy were advancing, and covered his flanks with numerous troops of his Indian allies. At the same time, he posted a strong detachment of men in his trenches, to prevent any sally from the garrison during the approaching engagement. About eight in the evening, the two armies being in sight of each other, the Indians attached to the English, advancing, proposed a conference with their countrymen who served under the French banners; but the proposition was

July 24.
Battle of
Niagara—

declined. The French Indians having raised the wild and horrible scream called the war-whoop, which by this time had lost its appalling effect on the British soldiers, the action began by an impetuous attack from the enemy; and while the neighbouring cataract of Niagara pealed forth to inattentive ears its everlasting *voice of many waters*, the roar of artillery, the yells of the Indians, and the shrieks and shouts incident to a field of battle, mingled in strange chorus with the majestic music of nature. The French conducted their attack with the utmost courage and spirit, but were encountered with such steady valour in front by the British regulars and provincials, and so severely galled on their flanks by the Indians, that in less than an hour their army was completely routed, their general with all his officers taken prisoners, and the fugitives from the field pursued with great slaughter for many miles through the woods. This was the second victory gained in the course of the present war by Sir William Johnson, a man who had received no military education, and whose fitness for command was derived solely from natural courage and sagacity.¹ Both his victories were signalised by the capture of the enemy's commanders. On the morning after the battle, Johnson sent an officer to communicate the result of it to the commandant of the garrison at Fort Niagara, and recommended an immediate surrender before more blood was shed, and while it was yet in his power to restrain the barbarity of the Indians: and the commandant, having ascertained the truth of the tidings, capitulated without farther delay. The garrison, consisting of between six and seven hundred effective men, marched out with the honours of war, and were conveyed prisoners to New York. They were allowed to retain their baggage, and by proper escort, were protected from the ferocity and rapacity of the Indians. Though eleven hundred of these savages (chiefly of the confederacy of the Six Nations) followed Johnson to Niagara, so effectually did he restrain them, that not an incident occurred to rival or retaliate the scenes at Oswego and Fort William-Henry. The

CHAP.
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1759.

July 25.

and cap-
ture of
Fort Nia-
gara.

¹ "The war in general was distinguished by the singular success of Sir William Johnson and the celebrated Lord Clive, two self-taught generals, who, by a series of shining actions, have demonstrated that uninstructed genius can, by its own internal light and efficacy, rival, if not eclipse, the acquired advantages of discipline and experience."—Smollett.

BOOK X.
1759. women, of whom a considerable number was found at Fort Niagara, were sent, at their own request, with their children to Montreal; and the sick and wounded, who could not sustain the fatigue of removal, were treated with humane attention. Although the army by which this success was achieved, whether from ignorance of the result of Wolfe's enterprise, or from some other cause more easily conjectured than ascertained, made no attempt to pursue the ulterior objects which had been assigned to its sphere of operation, and so far failed to fulfil its expected share of the campaign; yet the actual result of its exertions was gratifying and important in no ordinary degree. The reduction of Niagara effectually interrupted the communication, so much dreaded by the English between Canada and Louisiana: and by this blow, one of the grand designs of the French, which had long threatened to produce war, and which finally contributed to provoke the present contest, was completely defeated.¹

General Wolfe, meanwhile, was engaged in that capital enterprise of the campaign which aimed at the reduction of Quebec. The army which he conducted, amounting to eight thousand men, having embarked at Louisburg, under convoy of an English squadron, commanded by Admiral Saunders and Holmes, after a successful voyage, disembarked, in the end of June, on the Isle of Orleans, a large fertile island surrounded by the waters of the St. Lawrence, situated a little below Quebec, well cultivated, producing plenty of grain, and abounding with inhabitants, villages, and plantations. Soon after his landing, Wolfe distributed a manifesto among the French colonists, acquainting them that the king, his master, justly exasperated against the French monarch, had equipped a powerful armament in order to humble his pride, and was determined to reduce the most considerable settlements of France in America. He declared that it was not against industrious peasants and their families, nor against the ministers of religion, that he wished or intended to make war: on the contrary, he lamented the misfortunes to which they were exposed by the quarrel; he offered them his protection, and promised to maintain them in their temporal possessions, as

¹ See Note VII. at the end of the volume.

well as in the free exercise of their religion, provided they would remain quiet, and abstain from participation in the controversy between the two crowns. The English, he observed, were masters of the river St. Lawrence, and could thus intercept all succours from France: and they had, besides, the prospect of a speedy reinforcement from the army which General Amherst was conducting to form a junction with them. The line of conduct which the Canadians ought to pursue, he affirmed, was neither difficult nor doubtful; since the utmost exertion of their valour must be useless, and could serve only to deprive themselves of the advantages which they might reap from their neutrality. He protested that the cruelties already exercised by the French upon the subjects of Great Britain in America, would sanction the most severe reprisals; but that Britons were too generous to follow such barbarous example. While he tendered to the Canadians the blessings of peace amidst the horrors of war, and left them by their own conduct to determine their own fate, he expressed his hope that the world would do him justice, and acquit him of blame, should the objects of his solicitude, by rejecting these favourable terms, oblige him to have recourse to measures of violence and severity. Having expatiated on the strength and power of Britain, whose indignation they might provoke, he urged them to recognise the generosity with which she now held forth the hand of humanity, and tendered to them forbearance and protection, at the very time when France, by her weakness, was compelled to abandon them. This proclamation produced no immediate effect: nor, indeed, did the Canadians place much dependence on the assurances of a people whom their priests had industriously represented to them as the fiercest and most faithless enemy upon earth. Possessed with these notions, they disregarded the offered protection of Wolfe, and, abandoning their habitations, joined the scalping parties of the Indians who skulked among the woods, and butchered all the English stragglers whom they could surprise, with the most inhuman barbarity. Wolfe, in a letter to Montcalm, remonstrated against these enormities as contrary to the rules of war between civilized nations, and dishonourable to the service of France. But either the authority of Montcalm was not sufficient, or it was not exerted

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1759.

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1759.

with sufficient energy, to bridle the ferocity of the savages ; who continued to scalp and murder with such increase of appetite for blood and revenge, that Wolfe, in the hope of intimidating the enemy into a cessation of this style of hostility, judged it expedient to connive at some retaliatory outrages, from which the nobleness of his disposition would otherwise have revolted with abhorrence.

From his position in the Isle of Orleans, the English commander had a distinct view of the danger and difficulty by which his enterprise was confronted. Quebec is chiefly built on a steep rock on the northern bank of the St. Lawrence, and additionally defended by the river St. Charles, which, flowing past it on the east, unites with the St. Lawrence immediately below the town, and consequently incloses it in a peninsular situation. Besides its natural barriers, the city was tolerably fortified by art ; secured with a numerous garrison, and plentifully supplied with provisions and ammunition. In the St. Charles, whose channel is rough, and whose borders are intersected with ravines, there were several armed vessels and floating batteries ; and a strong boom was drawn across its mouth. On the eastern bank of this stream, a formidable body of French troops, strongly entrenched, extended their encampment along the shore of Beaufort to the falls of the river Montmorency, having their rear covered by an almost impenetrable forest. At the head of this army was the skilful, experienced, and intrepid Montcalm, the ablest commander whom France had employed in America, since the death of Count Frontignac, and who, though possessed of forces superior in number to the invaders, prudently determined to stand on the defensive, and mainly depend on the natural strength of the country, which, indeed, appeared almost insurmountable. He had lately reinforced his troops with five battalions embodied from the flower of the colonial population : he had trained to arms all the neighbouring inhabitants, and collected around him a numerous band of the most ancient and attached Indian allies of France. To undertake the siege of Quebec, against such means of opposition, was not only a deviation from the established maxims of war, but a rash and romantic enterprise. Wolfe, however, though fully aware of the hazard and difficulty of the achievement,

was not to be deterred from attempting it. He knew that he should always have it in his power to retreat, in case of emergency, while the British squadron maintained its station in the river: he cherished the hope of being joined by Amherst; and, above all, though his body, yet in the bloom of manhood, was oppressed by a painful, lingering, mortal malady,¹ his mind was burning with the resistless fever of renown; nor could the most formidable accumulation of danger and disappointment either daunt his courage or depress his hope. His ardour was partaken, and his efforts ably seconded by many gallant officers, who served under him, and particularly by the three brigadier-generals, Monckton, Townsend, and Murray.² The safety of the fleet, on whose co-operation he relied, was twice menaced,—first, by a violent storm, which, however, it happily surmounted with little damage; and, afterwards, by a number of fire-ships, which the French sent down the river, but which, by the skill and vigilance of Admiral Saunders, were all intercepted, towed ashore, and rendered perfectly harmless. Resolved to attempt whatever was practicable for the reduction of Quebec, Wolfe took possession, after a successful skirmish, of Point Levi, on the southern bank of the St. Lawrence, and there erected batteries against the town; but his fire from this position, though it destroyed many houses, made little impression upon the works, which were too strong and too remote to be essentially affected, and, at the same time, too elevated to be reached by a cannonade from the ships of war. Perceiving that his artillery could not be effectually exerted, except from batteries erected on the opposite side of the St. Lawrence, Wolfe soon decided on more daring and impetuous measures. The northern shore of the St. Lawrence, to a considerable extent, above Quebec, is so rocky and precipitous, as to render a landing, in the face of an enemy, impracticable. An offensive attempt below the town, though less imprudent, was confronted by formidable obstructions. Even, if the river Montmorency were passed, and the French driven from their

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Siege of
Quebec.

¹ Stone in the bladder. I was assured of this by an old gentleman who knew him.

² They were the sons of British noblemen. Townsend was, himself, heir to a peerage, and solicited to a life of quiet by an affluent fortune, and circumstances of the highest domestic felicity.

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entrenchments, the St. Charles must still present a new and less superable barrier against the assailants. Wolfe, acquainted with every obstacle, but heroically observing that "a victorious army finds no difficulties," resolved to pass the Montmorency, and bring Montcalm to an engagement. To this end, thirteen companies of English grenadiers, and part of the second battalion of royal Americans were landed at the mouth of that river, while two divisions, under generals Townsend and Murray, prepared to cross it by a ford, which had been discovered farther up the stream. Wolfe's plan was to attack, in the first instance, a redoubt close to the water's edge, and apparently beyond reach of the fire from the enemy's entrenchments, in the hope that the French, by attempting to support that fortification, would enable him to bring on a general engagement; or, that if they should submit to the loss of the redoubt, he could thence take an accurate survey of their position, and advantageously regulate his subsequent operations. On the approach of the British troops, the redoubt was evacuated; and Wolfe, observing some confusion in the French camp, instantly changed his original plan, and determined to attack the hostile entrenchments without farther delay. Townsend and Murray were now commanded to hold their divisions in readiness for fording the river, and the grenadiers and royal Americans were directed to form on the beach, and await there the reinforcement which was requisite to sustain their exertions; but, flushed with ardour and negligent of support, these troops made an instant and impetuous charge upon the enemy's entrenchments, where they were received with so steady and sharp a fire from the French musketry, that they were presently thrown into disorder, and compelled to take refuge in the abandoned redoubt. Here, it proved, unexpectedly, that they were still exposed to an effective fire from the enemy, and several brave officers, exposing their persons in attempting to form and rally the troops, were killed. A dreadful thunder-storm, which now burst forth, concurred to baffle the efforts of the British, without depressing the spirit of the French, who continued to fire, not only upon the troops in the redoubt, but on those who were lying wounded and disabled on the field, near their own entrenchments.¹

¹ When General Townsend, in the sequel, expostulated with the French officers

The English general, now finding that his plan of attack was completely disconcerted, ordered his troops to repossess the river, and return to the Isle of Orleans. Besides the mortifying check which he had received, he lost in this rash, ill-considered attempt, nearly five hundred of the bravest men in his army.

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Some experience, however, though dearly bought, had been gained: and Wolfe, now assured of the impracticability of approaching Quebec on the side of the Montmorency, while Montcalm retained his station, which he seemed determined to do, till from the advance of the season, the elements should lend their aid in destroying the invaders,—detached General Murray with twelve hundred men in transports to co-operate with Admiral Holmes above the town in an attempt upon the French shipping, and to distract the enemy by descents on the banks of the river. After twice endeavouring without success to land on the northern shore, Murray, by a sudden descent which he accomplished at Chambaud, gained the opportunity of destroying a valuable magazine, filled with clothing, arms, ammunition, and provisions; but the French ships were found to be secured in such a manner as to defy the approach either of the fleet or the army. On his return to the British camp, he brought the consolatory intelligence, obtained from his prisoners, that Fort Niagara was taken; that Ticonderoga and Crown Point had been occupied without resistance; and that General Amherst was making preparations to attack the enemy at Isle Aux Noix. This intelligence, though in itself grateful, afforded no prospect of speedy assistance; and indeed proclaimed the failure of Amherst in seasonably executing the plan of co-operation concerted between the two armies. Nothing, however, could shake the resolution of Wolfe, or induce him to abandon the enterprise which he had commenced. Instead of being disheartened, he was roused to additional energy of purpose and effort by the conviction that success now depended exclusively on himself and his present force, and that it had become absolutely essential to his reputation already wounded and endangered by the disaster at

Aug. 25.

upon this inhumanity, they declared that the fire did not proceed from the regulars, but from the Canadians and the savages, whom it was impossible to restrain by discipline.

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Montmorency. In a council of his principal officers, assembled at this critical juncture, it was resolved to transfer the scene of operations to the banks of the St. Lawrence above the town. The camp at the Isle of Orleans was accordingly abandoned: and the whole army having embarked on board the fleet, a part of it was landed at Point Levi, and a part at a spot farther up the river. Admiral Holmes, meanwhile, for several days successively, manœuvred with his fleet in a manner calculated to amuse the enemy on the northern shore, and draw their attention as far as possible from the city. These movements had no other effect than to induce Montcalm to detach fifteen hundred men under the command of Bougainville, one of his officers, from the main camp, to watch the motions of the English fleet and army, and prevent a landing from being accomplished.

Wolfe was now confined to bed by a severe fit of the disease under which he laboured, aggravated by incessant fatigue and by the anxiety inseparable from a combination of embarrassments sufficient to have discouraged and perplexed the most resolute and intelligent commander. In this situation, his three brigadier generals, whom he had ordered to concert some plan of operations, projected and proposed to him a daring enterprise, of which the immediate object was to gain possession of the lofty eminences beyond Quebec, where the enemy's fortifications were comparatively slight. It was proposed to land the troops by night under the *Heights of Abraham*, at a small distance from the city, and to scale the summit of these heights before day-break. This attempt manifestly involved extreme difficulty and hazard. The stream was rapid, the shore shelving, the bank of the river lined with French sentinels, the landing-place so narrow as easily to be missed in the dark; and the cliff which must afterwards be surmounted, so steep that it was difficult to ascend it even in open day and without opposition. Should the design be promulgated by a spy or deserter, or suspected by the enemy; should the disembarkation be disordered through the darkness of the night, or the obstructions of the shore; the landing-place be mistaken, or but one sentinel alarmed,—the Heights of Abraham would instantly be covered with such numbers of troops as would render the attempt abortive, and defeat inevitable.

Though these circumstances of danger could not escape the penetration of Wolfe, yet he hesitated not a moment to embrace a project so congenial to his ardent and enterprising disposition, as well as to the hazardous and embarrassing predicament in which he was placed, and from which only some brilliant and surprising effort could extricate him to his own and his country's satisfaction. His active powers seemed to revive with the near prospect of decisive action: he soon recovered his health so far as to be able to conduct in person the enterprise on which he had resolved to stake his fame; and in the execution of it, displayed a force of judgment, and a deliberate valour and intrepidity, that rivalled and vindicated the heroism of its conception. The necessary orders having been communicated, and the previous preparations judiciously arranged, the whole fleet, upon the 12th of September, moved up the river several leagues above the spot allotted for the assault, and at various intervening places made signs of an intention of landing the troops: as if the movement had been merely experimental, and no decisive purpose of attack were yet entertained. But, an hour after midnight, the troops were embarked in flat-bottomed boats, which, aided by the tide and the stream, drifted with all possible caution down the river towards the intended place of disembarkation. They were obliged to keep close to the northern shore, in order to diminish the danger of passing the landing-place (which, nevertheless, had very nearly happened) in the dark; and yet escaped the challenge of all the French sentinels except one or two whose vigilance, however, was baffled by the presence of mind and ingenuity with which a Scotch officer replied to the challenge, and described the force to which he belonged as a part of Bougainville's troops employed in exploring the state of the river and motions of the English. Silence was commanded under pain of death, which was indeed doubly menaced: and a death-like stillness was observed in every boat, except the one which conveyed the commander-in-chief, where, in accents barely audible to the profound attention of his listening officers, Wolfe repeated that noble effusion of solemn thought and poetic genius, Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, which had been recently published at London, and of which a copy had been brought to him, by

BOOK the last packet from England. When he had finished his
 X. recitation, he added in a tone still guardedly low, but earnest
 1759. and emphatic,—“ Now, gentlemen, I would rather be the
 author of that poem, than take Quebec:”¹—perhaps the noblest
 tribute ever paid by arms to letters, since the time when the
 poetry of Euripides snatched his vanquished countrymen from
 the vengeance of the people of Syracuse. About an hour
 before day-break, a landing was effected. Wolfe was one of
 the first who leaped ashore; and when he beheld the precipi-
 tuous height whose ascent still remained to crown the arduous
 enterprise thus far advanced in safety through the jaws of
 fate, he coolly observed to an officer near him, “ I doubt if
 you will get up: but you must do what you can.” A detach-
 ment of Scotch Highlanders and of light infantry, commanded
 by Colonel Howe (brother of the nobleman who perished at
 Ticonderoga) led the way up the dangerous cliff, which was
 ascended by the aid of the rugged projection of the rocks and
 the branches of some bushes and plants that protruded from
 their crevices. The rest of the troops, emulating this gallant
 and skilful example, followed their comrades up the narrow
 Sept. 13. path: and by break of day, the whole army reached the
 summit.

When Montcalm received intelligence that the British were
 in possession of the Heights of Abraham, he could not at first
 credit the full import of the tidings. Accounting it impossi-
 ble that a whole army could have ascended such a rugged and
 abrupt precipice, he concluded that the demonstration was
 merely a feint, undertaken by a small detachment, in order to
 induce him to abandon the position which he had hitherto
 maintained. Convinced, however, by farther observation, of
 his mistake, he conceived that an engagement could no longer
 be avoided; and instantly quitting his camp at Montmorency,
 crossed the river St. Charles, with the purpose of attacking
 the English army. In thus consenting to give battle, Mont-
 calm was rather confounded by the genius and daring, than
 over-ruled by the actual success and position of his adversary.

¹ This anecdote was related by the late celebrated John Robison, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh, who, in his youth, was a midshipman in the British navy, and was in the same boat with Wolfe. “ The paths of glory lead but to the grave,” is one of the lines which Wolfe must have recited, as he strikingly exemplified its truth on this occasion.

Had he retired into Quebec, he might, especially at such an advanced period of the year, and with so numerous a garrison, have securely defied a siege. Wolfe, observing the movement of the enemy, began to form his own line, which consisted of six battalions and the Louisburg grenadiers. The right wing was commanded by Monckton; the left by Murray: the right flank was covered by the Louisburg grenadiers; and the rear and left by Howe's light infantry, which had shortly before achieved the easy conquest of a four-gun battery. As the form in which the French advanced, indicated the intention to out-flank the left of the English army, Townsend was sent to this part of the line, with the regiment of Amherst and the two battalions of royal Americans, which were formed (according to military phraseology) *en potence*, so as to present a double front to the enemy. One regiment, drawn up in eight divisions, with large intervals, formed the English body of reserve. Montcalm's dispositions for the attack, were not less skilful and judicious. The right and left wings of his army were composed almost equally of European and of colonial troops: the centre consisted of a column formed of two battalions of regulars. Fifteen hundred Indians and Canadians, expert and deadly marksmen, advancing in front, and screened by surrounding thickets, began the battle. Their irregular fire proved fatal to many officers, whom they preferably aimed at; but it was soon silenced by the steady fire of the British. Both armies were destitute of artillery, except two small pieces on the side of the French, and a single gun which the English seamen contrived to hoist up from the landing-place, and which they employed during the action with considerable effect. A strong and cheering presentiment of victory was, doubtless, entertained by troops who had already exerted so much valour, and vanquished so many obstacles, in order to meet the enemy on a fair field of battle. About nine in the morning, the main body of the French advanced vigorously to the charge, and the conflict soon became general. Montcalm having chosen for his own station the left of the French army; and Wolfe, for his, the right of the English, the two commanders directly confronted each other in the quarter where arose the hottest encounter of this memorable day. The English troops

Battle
of the
Heights
of Abra-
ham —

B O O K reserved their fire till the French were within forty yards of
X. their line; and then, by a terrible discharge, spread havoc
1759. among the adverse ranks. Their fire was continued with a
vigour and deliberation which effectually checked the advance
and visibly abated the audacity of the French. Wolfe, who,
early in the action, had been wounded in the wrist, betraying
no symptom of pain, wrapped a handkerchief round his arm,
and continued to direct and animate his troops. Soon after,
he received a shot in the groin: but, concealing the wound,
he was leading his grenadiers to the charge, when a third ball
pierced his breast, and brought him to the ground. The
army, incensed rather than disconcerted by his fall, continued
the action, with unabated vigour, under Monckton, on whom
the command now devolved, but who was soon obliged, by
a dangerous wound, to resign it to General Townsend.
Montcalm, about the same time, while animating the fight,
in front of his battalion, was pierced with a mortal wound;
and General Senezergus also, the second in command on the
same side, shortly after fell. While the fall of Wolfe seemed
to impart a higher temper to the courage of the English, the
loss of Montcalm produced a contrary and depressing effect
on the spirits of the French. The British right wing now
pressed on with fixed bayonets in pursuit of victory, honour,
and vengeance. General Murray, at the same critical instant,
briskly advancing with the troops under his direction,
broke the centre of the French army; and their confusion was
completed by a charge of the Highlanders, who, drawing
their broadswords, attacked them with resistless fury and
drove them with great slaughter, partly into Quebec, and
partly over the St. Charles. On the left of the British
position, the combat was less violent and sanguinary: but
here, also, the attack of the French was repulsed, and their
attempt to outflank the British disconcerted. At this juncture,
Bougainville, with a body of two thousand fresh troops,
approached the rear of the victorious English: but observing
the complete route and dispersion of Montcalm's forces, he
did not venture to abide a renewal of the action. The victory
was decisive. About a thousand of the French were made
prisoners, and nearly an equal number fell in the battle
and the pursuit: of the remainder, the greater number, not

being able to gain the shelter of Quebec, retired first to Point au Tremble, and afterwards to Trois Rivières and Montreal. The loss of the English, both in killed and wounded, was less than 600 men. But the fate of Wolfe was deeply and universally deplored. After the last wound which he received, finding himself unable to stand, he leaned upon the shoulder of a lieutenant, who sat down in order to support him. This officer, seeing the French give way, exclaimed, "They run! they run!"—"Who run?" cried Wolfe, with eagerness; for his glazing eye could no longer discern the fortune of the day. Being informed that it was the enemy, he replied with animation, "Then, I die happy!"—and almost instantly after expired *in the blaze of his fame*.¹ Intensely studious, and yet promptly and vigorously active; heroically brave and determined; generous, indulgent, courteous, and humane,—Wolfe was the pattern of his officers, and the idol of his soldiers. The force of his genius enabled him practically to distinguish, what inferior minds never discover at all, the difference between great difficulties and impossibilities: and being undiscouraged by what was merely, however mightily, difficult, he undertook and achieved what others would have accounted and found to be impossible. He was, for a time, the favourite hero of England as well as of America: and statues erected at the public expense, attested his glory, both in the old world and the new. A marble statue, in particular, was voted to his memory by the assembly of Massachusetts. His rival, Montcalm, survived him but a few hours, and died

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¹ "Thou strik'st the young hero, a glorious mark!
He dies in the blaze of his fame."

If the recollection of any individual hero inspired this glowing expression of the poet Burns, it was probably Wolfe. From the period of his death till the time when Burns wrote, no British officer had fallen in so remarkable a manner. It was, perhaps, also from Wolfe's heroic and successful daring that Burns derived the bold sentiment, that

"Wha does the utmost that he can,
Will whyles do mair."

Wolfe deserved every tribute from the Muse, to whom he had rendered one of the most striking instances of homage that has ever been recorded. He had not yet attained the age of 33 when he fell in the arms of victory. The poet Wordsworth makes a beautiful allusion to *the plain*—

"Where breathed the gale that caught Wolfe's happiest sigh."

Thomas Paine first distinguished himself by a poetical effusion on the death of Wolfe. Goldsmith celebrated Wolfe's achievement in some verses of little merit, entitled "Stanzas on the taking of Quebec."

BOOK with the most undaunted and enduring courage. When he
 X. was informed that his wound was mortal, his reply was, "I
 1759. am glad to hear it:" and when the near approach of death
 was announced to him, he added, "So much the better:—
 I shall not, then, live to see the surrender of Quebec." Un-
 fortunately for his fame, the extent to which he is justly re-
 sponsible for the treacherous cruelties of the Indian allies of
 his countrymen, on various occasions, still remains doubtful.
 It is pretended by some English writers, that General Amherst
 had declared his purpose of treating Montcalm, if he should
 happen to take him alive, not as an honourable warrior, but
 as a bandit or robber. If, however, such sentiments were ever
 really entertained, they were erased from the minds of victo-
 rious enemies by the heroical circumstances of Montcalm's
 death, and the remembrance of his talent and intrepidity,—
 merits, which, a wise regard to his own fame, and even more
 generous sentiment, must ever prompt a conqueror to re-
 cognise, and perhaps exaggerate, in a vanquished foe: and
 when, some time after, the French government desired leave
 to erect a monument to his memory in Canada, the request
 was granted by the English minister, Pitt, in terms expressive
 of a high admiration of Montcalm's character. Monckton
 recovered of his wound at New York. It was unfortunate,
 perhaps, for the fame of all the officers who distinguished
 themselves on either side in these hostilities, that the
 European states to which they respectively belonged were
 very soon tempted to regret the effects of the prowess which
 they had exerted in America.

General Townsend, who now commanded the army of
 Wolfe, proceeded to fortify his camp, and to construct lines
 and take other necessary measures for the investment of
 Quebec: but his operations, which might otherwise have
 been considerably protracted, if not entirely defeated, were
 happily abridged by a proposition of the garrison within five
 Sept. 17. days of the late victory, to surrender the place to the English
 forces. The discomfiture of Montcalm's plan of defence,
 and the loss of his commander, whose active genius and
 despotic authority had rendered him not merely the leader of
 the French, but the main spring of all their conduct and ex-
 ertions, seemed to have confounded the spirit and paralysed

the vigour of this garrison, whose early surrender excited C H A P. general surprise, and was equally grateful to their enemies, V. and mortifying to their countrymen. The terms of the capitulation were the more favourable for the besieged, as the 1759. enemy was assembling a large force in the rear of the British army; as the season had become wet, cold, and stormy, threatening the troops with sickness, and the fleet with danger; and as a considerable advantage was to be gained from taking possession of the town while the walls were yet in a defensible condition. It was stipulated that the inhabitants, during the war, should be protected in the free exercise of their religion: their future political destiny was left to be decided at the return of peace. This capitulation occurred very seasonably for the British, who learned immediately after that the enemy's army had rallied and been reinforced beyond Cape Rouge by two regular battalions which General de Levi had conducted to their aid from Montreal; and that Bougainville with eight hundred men and a convoy of provisions was prepared to throw himself into the town on the very day of its surrender. The capitulation was no sooner Sept. 18. ratified, than the British forces took possession of Quebec and sur- which, besides its garrison, contained a population of ten render of thousand persons. Next day, about a thousand prisoners Quebec. were embarked on board of transports to be conveyed to Europe. The capital of New France, thus reduced to the dominion of Great Britain, received a garrison of five thousand troops commanded by General Murray, whose security was farther promoted by the conduct which the French colonists in the neighbourhood now thought proper to adopt; for they repaired in great numbers to Quebec, and, delivering up their arms, pledged themselves by oath to observe a strictly passive neutrality during the continuance of the war. The British fleet shortly after took its departure from the St. Lawrence, carrying with it General Townsend, who returned to England.

The operations which had been entrusted to General Stanwix, were attended with complete success. By his conduct and prudence the British interest and empire were established so firmly, to all appearance, on the banks of the Ohio, that the emigrants from Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania,

BOOK were very soon after enabled securely to resume and advantageously to extend the settlements in this quarter, from which the French had expelled them in the commencement of the war.¹

Thus brilliantly ended the campaign of 1759. In England, its results were hailed with the most enthusiastic triumph and applause. In America, though their sentiments were warmly and justly reciprocated, the public satisfaction was yet depressed by a prevalent apprehension that the recent victories would be attended with merely a transient advantage, and that the conquests of Britain would again be restored to France by the next treaty of peace. This notion (justified by many previous occurrences, as well as by calculations of the British policy to which we have already adverted) prevailed, besides, among many of the Indian tribes, and proved injurious to the British interest with this savage race, whose untamed ferocity did not render them altogether unsusceptible of politic impressions. About a month after the conquest of Quebec, two Indians belonging to the confederacy of the Six Nations and attached to the English interest, repaired to Canada for the ostensible purpose of visiting a portion of their tribe which had been gained over to the cause of France, and now inhabited the Canadian territory. The visitors endeavoured to persuade their ancient kinsmen to make a timely secession from the French, and to return to their original country; telling them, in Indian style, "That the English, formerly women, were now all turned into men, and were growing as thick in the country as the trees in the woods: that they had taken the French forts at Ohio, Ticonderoga, Louisburg, and Quebec; and would soon eat the remainder of the French in Canada, together with all the Indians that adhered to them." But the French Indians answered, "Brothers, you are deceived: the English cannot eat up the French: their mouth is too little, their jaws too weak, and their teeth not sharp enough. Our father Onontio (by this name they distinguished the governor of Canada) has told us, and we believe him, that the English, like a thief,

¹ Annual Register for 1760 and 1762. Smollett. Wynne. Trumbull. Campbell. Holmes. Roger's American Biographical Dictionary. Playfair's Memoir of Professor Robison.

have stolen Louisburg and Quebec from the great king, whilst his back was turned, and he was looking another way: but now that he has turned his face, and sees what the English have done, he is going into their country with a thousand great canoes, and all his warriors; and he will take the little English king and pinch him, till he make him cry out and give back what he has stolen, as he did about ten summers ago; and this your eyes will soon see." This representation appears to have produced a considerable impression on the Indian race, and especially on the Six Nations,¹ who, recalling former instances in which the British policy had been reproached by them as faithless and inconsistent, experienced an abatement of zeal in behalf of allies, who, they feared, might ultimately abandon them to the vengeance of their common enemy. The French industriously fomented in the minds of the savages every sentiment unfavourable towards Britain: and the Cherokee war, which occurred not many months after, rewarded the address and assiduity of their intrigues.

Both in the recent and the previous campaign, which had been distinguished by the revived lustre of the British arms, the provincial troops merited and obtained an ample share of the general praise. By the prudence and liberality of the English commanders, the invidious distinctions that had been enjoined by the king, were disregarded or relaxed: and in the field, only a generous emulation prevailed between the regulars and the provincials. This emulation had been signally evinced at Niagara, and contributed materially to the success of Sir William Johnson. Massachusetts, this year, in addition to her contingent of 6,500 men, (of whom 2,500 served in garrison at Louisburg and Nova Scotia, several hundreds on board the king's ships, and the remainder along with Amherst's army,) in compliance with the request of General Wolfe, raised three hundred more, and despatched them to Quebec, where they served as pioneers.²

The legislature of Massachusetts having passed a stamp act, in which newspapers were included, a petition was presented by the printers of the province against this impost,

¹ Annual Register for 1759.

² Minot. Hutchinson.

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1759. which was accordingly withdrawn, in consideration that newspapers were not only vehicles of knowledge, but instruments of liberty. In the records of the legislature of this, as well as of the other American provinces, we find the pernicious instrumentality of lotteries frequently sanctioned and adopted for the creation of funds for purposes of public utility. The example of the parent state communicated this vile and demoralizing engine of finance to her colonies. Previous to the final rupture between Britain and America, the American colonists commonly purchased every year an eighth part of the tickets of the British state lottery.¹

This year died Sir William Pepperel, who had distinguished himself so highly as commander of the expedition by which Cape Breton was conquered in 1745. Pepperel, and another individual of the same name,² were the only natives of New England, on whom the British title of baronet was ever conferred. Sir John Yeamans and Sir William Johnson³ the only other of the American colonists on whom the same titular dignity had been bestowed, were natives of the parent state. Sir William Phipps was the only American whose advancement to the inferior dignity of knighthood has been recorded.⁴ So sparingly had Britain distributed among her colonial offspring, those fanciful decorations which France had lavishly bestowed upon the Canadians, and successfully employed to nourish and sustain their prejudices in favour of royalty and aristocracy. If Britain (always supposing, though contrary to probability, that her policy was the result of consistent and prospective system) hoped to impress her American subjects with additional reverence for a parent state, which was not only the fountain but the sole depositary of titular honours,

¹ Holmes. Ann. Reg. for 1769.

² William Pepperel, of Boston (probably a relative of the conqueror of Cape Breton), was created a baronet of Great Britain in the year 1774, two years before the revolt of America from the British empire.—Ann. Reg. for 1774.

³ On the death of Sir William Johnson, in 1774, his title was inherited by his son, Sir John Johnson, who had been born in America, and who espousing the quarrel of Britain in the war of independence, committed, at the head of a body of Indians, the most barbarous devastation of the American settlements.—Dwight's Travels.

⁴ Sir Benjamin Thomson (better known by the title of Count Rumford) was a native of Massachusetts. But he did not receive his title of knighthood till after the revolt of America from Britain, when it was bestowed on him as the reward of his adherence to the parent state.

she failed in her design. If her purpose was to cherish among the colonists habits of industry and sobriety, she unquestionably succeeded; though at the expense of diminishing their regard for some of her own most ancient and characteristic institutions. Generally trained to useful labour, and habituated to regard it as almost the sole, and certainly the worthiest and most accessible path to distinction, the colonists had long entertained a jealousy of every system and institution that encroached on the respect or diminished the reward due to industrious pursuits. Some of the noblemen whom the parent state deputed to administer royal prerogative, or to fill other conspicuous offices in America, were persons of worth and honour; but none of them justified his titular pretensions to superiority over the rest of mankind, by his personal achievements; and the majority had excited the aversion and contempt of the colonists. The insolent pretensions and the sordid or insignificant characters of the inheritors of *proprietary rights* in America, together with the abortive attempt of the proprietaries of Carolina to introduce a subordinate species of titular nobility into this province, had combined to give a keener edge to the dislike of a hereditary tenure of honour and authority. There had, indeed, been always some individuals, and now there was a party among the colonists, certainly not considerable in numbers, who longed for such an assimilation of the colonial institutions to those of the parent state, as might enable themselves to indulge the pride and partake the splendour and ease of the titles, trappings, and pensions of Europe; even at the expense of exalting the royal prerogative in America, and proportionally restricting and depressing the liberties of their countrymen.¹ This party, which, doubtless, included among its members, some dexterous and unprincipled knaves, probably contained a larger admixture of men in whom a blind but honest zeal for British and monarchical power, was combined with a sincere devotion to their own private interests, in various, and, to human eyes, inscrutable proportions. Opposed to popular rights, and exclaiming against the aim and the danger of popular sentiment in America, this party easily gained the ear and at least

¹ Franklin's Memoirs and Correspondence. Holmes. Belknap.

BOOK the partial confidence of the royal court ; and probably conceived, as well as conveyed, an exaggerated idea of its own influence, from the occasional support which it received from wealthy colonists, who, though warmly attached to liberty and their country, overvalued the superior riches of Britain, dreaded change and peril, and believed, because they wished, the infallible efficacy of temperate and submissive demeanour in preserving the relations of friendship and the blessings of peace. The zealots of monarchical and republican principles,—the one relying on British support, the other on their own superior numbers in America,—were more disposed both by word and action to precipitate their controversy to an extremity. The conduct of both was influenced at the present crisis by the state of public affairs, and the demeanour of the moderate party, which at once excited the ardour of the partizans of prerogative, and enforced the caution on the advocates of liberty. However disposed the British court, or any portion of it, might have been, at this period, to second the wishes of a party devoted to the interests of the crown, it was no easy matter to alter the long usages and established constitutions of the American provinces ; in opposition, especially, to that strong current of republican sentiment and opinion by which all these provinces were pervaded, and of which, even at a crisis like the present, the most unfavourable for its manifestation, there broke forth many unequivocal symptoms.

The present contest between the French and English in America, was signalized, from time to time, by various predatory inroads of the Indian allies of France upon the frontiers of Massachusetts and New Hampshire. In this, as in the previous war, the provincial annalists confess the forbearance and tenderness generally demonstrated by the savages for their captives, but no longer hesitate to determine whether this altered treatment was the offspring of policy or humanity. For it was found that the Indians were engaged to deliver all their prisoners alive into the hands of the French, who indemnified themselves for the subsidies which they paid to their savage allies, by the ransoms which they exacted from the families and kinsmen of the captives. ¹

¹ Belknap.

CHAPTER VI.

Progress of Hostilities in America—entire Conquest of Canada.—War with the
Cherokees.—Affairs of Massachusetts.—Death of George the Second.—Conclu-
sion of the Cherokee War.—Affairs of South Carolina.—Discontents in Massa-
chusetts—and in North Carolina.—Peace of Paris.—Affairs of Virginia—Patrick
Henry.—Indian War.—Affairs of Pennsylvania.

THE inhabitants of North America had eagerly indulged the hope that the reduction of Quebec not only betokened, but actually imported the entire conquest of Canada; but they were speedily undeceived, and, aroused by the spirited and nearly successful attempt of the French to retrieve this loss, they consented the more willingly to a renewed exertion of their resources for the purpose of securing and improving the victorious posture of their affairs. The New England levies, this year, were as numerous as they had ever been during the war; the Virginian levies (augmented by the emergency of the Cherokee war) amounted to two thousand men.

No sooner had the English fleet retired from the river St. Lawrence, than Levi, who had succeeded to Montcalm's command, resolved to attempt the recovery of Quebec. The land forces, which he possessed, were more numerous than the army of Wolfe, by which the conquest of the place had been achieved, and he enjoyed the co-operation of a number of frigates, which now enabled him entirely to command the river. He had hoped that a sudden attack might enable him to take Quebec by surprise, during the winter; but, after some preparatory approaches, which were repulsed, and a survey, which convinced him that the outposts were better secured, and the governor more active and alert than he had expected, he was induced to postpone his enterprise till the arrival of the spring. In the month of April, when the St. Lawrence afforded a navigation free from ice, the artillery,

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military stores, and heavy baggage of the French were embarked at Montreal, and carried down the river under the protection of six frigates ; and Levi, himself, after a march of ten days, arrived, with his army, at Point au Tremble, within a few miles of Quebec. General Murray, to whom the preservation of the English conquest was entrusted, had taken prompt and skilful measures for its security ; but his troops had suffered so much from the extreme cold of the winter, and the want of vegetables and fresh provisions, that, instead of five thousand, the original number of his garrison, he could now count on the services of no more than three thousand men. Prompted by overboiling courage, rather than guided by sound military discretion, and relying, perhaps, too far on Wolfe's assurance that nothing was impossible to a victorious army, he determined, with his inferior, but valiant force, to meet the enemy in the field, although their numbers amounted to more than twelve thousand ; and, accordingly, marching out to the Heights of Abraham, he attempted to render this scene once more tributary to the glory of Britain, by an impetuous assault on the neighbouring position of the enemy at Sillery ; but his attack was firmly sustained by the French ; and, after a sharp encounter, finding himself outflanked, and in danger of being surrounded by superior numbers, he withdrew his troops from the action, and retired into the city. In this conflict the British lost the greater part of their artillery, and nearly a thousand men. The French, though their loss, in killed and wounded, was more than double that number, had yet gained the victory, which their general lost no time in improving. On the evening of the day which had witnessed the battle, Levi opened trenches against the town ; yet, in spite of all his efforts, it was not till the 11th of May that his batteries were so far advanced as to commence an effectual fire upon the garrison. But Murray had now, by indefatigable exertion, in which he was assisted with the utmost alacrity by his soldiers, completed some outworks, and planted so powerful an artillery on the ramparts, that his fire was far superior to that of the besiegers, and nearly silenced their batteries. Quebec, nevertheless, would, most probably, have reverted to its former masters, if an armament, which had been despatched from France, had not been outsailed by a

British squadron, which succeeded in first gaining the entrance, and the command of the St. Lawrence. The French frigates, which had descended from Montreal, were now attacked by the British ships, and part of them having been destroyed, the rest betook themselves to a hasty retreat up the river. Levi instantly raised the siege, and, retiring with a precipitation that obliged him to abandon the greater part of his baggage and artillery, re-conducted his forces (with the exception of a number of Canadians and Indians who became disheartened, and deserted him by the way) to Montreal. Here the Marquis de Vaudreuil, governor-general of Canada, had fixed his head-quarters, and determined to make his last stand in defence of the French colonial empire,—thus reduced from the attitude of preponderance and conquest which it had presented two years before, to the necessity of a defensive and desperate effort for its own preservation. For this purpose Vaudreuil had called in all his detachments, and collected around him the whole force of the colony. Though little chance of success remained to him, he preserved an intrepid countenance, and, in all his dispositions, evinced the firmness and foresight of an accomplished commander. To support the spirits of the Canadians and their Indian allies, which had begun to droop, he had even recourse to the artifice of circulating among them feigned intelligence of the successes of France in other quarters of the world, and of her approaching succour.

General Amherst, meanwhile, was diligently engaged in concerting and prosecuting measures for the entire conquest of Canada. During the winter, he had made arrangements for bringing all the British forces from Quebec, Lake Champlain, and Lake Ontario, to join in a united attack upon Montreal; Colonel Haviland by his direction, sailing with a detachment from Crown Point, took possession of Isle Aux Noix, which he found abandoned by the enemy, and thence proceeded towards Montreal; while Amherst with his own division, consisting of about ten thousand regulars and provincials, left the frontiers of New York, and advanced to Oswego, where his force received the addition of a thousand Indians of the Six Nations marching under the command of Sir William Johnson. Embarking with his entire army on Lake Ontario,

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B O O K he reduced the fort of Isle Royale, one of the most important
 X. posts which the French possessed on the river St. Lawrence ;
 1760. and thence, after a difficult and dangerous passage, conducted
 Sept. 6. his troops to Montreal, where on the very day of their arrival,
 they were met by the forces commanded by General Murray.
 In his progress up the river, Murray had distributed procla-
 mations among the Canadians inhabiting its southern shore,
 which produced such an effect that almost all the parishes in
 this quarter, as far as the river Sorel, declared their submission
 to Britain, and took the oath of neutrality : and Lord Rollo,
 meanwhile, advancing along the northern shore, had disarmed
 all the inhabitants as far as Trois Rivières, which, though the
 capital of a district, being merely an open village, was taken
 without resistance. By a happy concert in the execution of
 a well digested plan, the armies of Amherst and Murray on
 Sept. 7. the day after their own simultaneous arrival, were joined
 by the detachment which had been confided to Colonel Havi-
 land. Amherst had already made preparation for investing
 Montreal : but Vaudreuil, perceiving, from the strength of
 the combined armies, and the skilful dispositions of their
 commanders, that resistance must be ineffectual, hastened to
 demand a capitulation ; and on the following day, Montreal,
 Sept. 8. Detroit, and all the other places of strength within the
 Entire conquest of government of Canada, were surrendered to the British
 Canada. crown.¹ After the capitulation, General Gage was appointed
 governor of Montreal, with a garrison of two thousand men :
 and Murray returned to Quebec, where his garrison was
 augmented to four thousand.

Thus fell the colonial empire of France on the continent of

¹ The general orders which Amherst issued to his troops on this occasion, and which were dated "Camp before Montreal, 8th September, 1760," contain the following passage :—"The general sees with infinite pleasure, the successes which have crowned the indefatigable efforts of his majesty's troops and faithful subjects in North America. The Marquis of Vaudreuil has capitulated the troops of France in Canada : they have laid down their arms, and are not to serve during the war. The whole country submits to the dominion of Great Britain. The three armies are all entitled to the general's thanks on this occasion ; and he assures them that he will take the first opportunity of acquainting his majesty with the zeal and bravery which have always been exerted by the officers and soldiers of the regular and provincial troops, and also by his faithful Indian allies. The general is confident that when the troops are informed that the country is the king's, they will not disgrace themselves by the least appearance of inhumanity, nor by the unsoldier-like behaviour of taking any plunder ; but that the Canadians, now become British subjects, may feel the good effects of his majesty's protection."

North America — the victim of overweening ambition, and of the rage of a rival state, transported by insult and injury beyond the usual current of its inclination, and the limits of the system which it had hitherto pursued. On the south of the Mississippi, indeed, the French still possessed the infant colony of Louisiana: but this settlement, so far from being powerful or formidable, was so thinly peopled, and so ill provided, that it could scarcely have preserved its existence, without the provisions and other supplies which it obtained by a contraband trade with the British provinces.¹ The downfall of the French dominion was completed by the fate of the armament which we have already remarked as having been despatched this year from France for the assistance of Canada. The commander of this force, which consisted of one frigate of thirty guns, two large store ships, and nineteen smaller vessels, having ascertained before their arrival on the coast that a British squadron had already sailed up the St. Lawrence, took refuge in the bay of Chaleurs, on the coast of Nova Scotia. Captain Byron, who commanded the British vessels stationed at Louisburg, receiving intelligence of this movement, instantly sailed with five ships of war to the bay of Chaleurs, and easily succeeded in destroying the hostile armament, as well as in dismantling two batteries which the French had erected on shore.²

During the progress of these decisive operations in the north, the inhabitants of the southern states of America were infested with the calamity of an Indian war, occasioned partly by their own inconsiderate violence and cruelty, and partly by the address and intrigues of the French. The Cherokees, in conformity with subsisting treaties, had sent considerable parties of their warriors to assist the British in their expeditions against Fort Du Quesne. In their return homewards through the back parts of Virginia, many of these warriors, having lost their horses, made no scruple to supply the want from the herds of these animals which they found roaming in the woods:—regardless, and perhaps ignorant of the rights which

War with
the Che-
rokees.

¹ Pitt, in a circular letter to the British provincial governments in the present year, indignantly remarked the subsistence of this contraband trade during the war, and directed that the severest measures should be employed to suppress it.

² Ann. Reg. for 1760. Smollett. Wynne. Trumbull. Minot. Holmes.

B O O K they violated. The Virginians, to whom the horses belonged,
X. resenting this injury, killed twelve or fourteen of the unsus-
1760.pecting Indians, and made prisoners of several more. Incensed
at such ungrateful usage from allies, in defence of whose fron-
tiers they had been so recently engaged, the Cherokees medi-
tated revenge; and were inflamed in their vindictive purpose
by the assurances of the French that the English intended to
kill every man of them, and to make slaves of their wives and
children. The insidious counsels of the French having been
reinforced by a liberal subsidy of arms and ammunition, the
Cherokees were tempted to court their own destruction by
plunging into a war with the British, which they accordingly
commenced by a furious and desolating incursion upon the
frontiers of Virginia and the Carolinas. These three provinces
combined for their common defence: a body of Virginian
militia under the command of Colonel Bird, and of the militia
of North Carolina commanded by Colonel Waddell, were
despatched to unite themselves with a force consisting partly
of regulars and partly of militia, which Littleton, the go-
vernor of South Carolina, in the close of the preceding year,
conducted into the country of the Cherokees, where, without
farther bloodshed, the quarrel was seemingly accommodated,
and a treaty was concluded and guaranteed by the delivery of
twenty-four Indian hostages. A lasting peace might have
ensued from this treaty, but for the folly of Governor Littleton,
who treated the Indian chiefs with the most insulting arro-
gance, and laughed at the wise remonstrances of Bull, the
lieutenant-governor, on the impolicy of offending the self-
respect of this proud race, and the danger and mischief of a
quarrel with them. Early in the present year, the Cherokees,
having waited only till the forces of Littleton were withdrawn
and dispersed, renewed their hostilities more furiously than
before, butchered a number of provincial traders who had
rashly ventured among them, and besieged Fort Prince George,
with the hope of recovering their hostages who were confined
there.¹ Their rage was increased by the fate which now befel

¹ The inhabitants of North Carolina were so much incensed by the cruelty and treachery of the Indians, that by a statute of the assembly of this province, it was enacted, this year, that all Indian prisoners should become slaves to their captors, and that a premium should be paid to every colonist producing an Indian scalp.

these hostages, who, resisting the orders of the commander of the fort, that they should be put in irons, and killing one of the soldiers who were attempting so to confine them, were instantly assaulted and slaughtered by his comrades. The warfare began to present so formidable an appearance, that an express was despatched from Carolina to General Amherst, to acquaint him with the public danger, and implore immediate succour. A battalion of Highlanders, and four companies of the royal Scots regiment, were accordingly sent under the command of Colonel Montgomery (afterwards Earl of Eglinton), for the relief of the southern provinces. Before the end of April, Montgomery landed his troops in Carolina, and encamped at Monk's Corner. A few weeks after his arrival, he marched to the Congarees, where he was joined by the whole re-assembled forces which had been engaged in the expedition of the preceding year. Advancing thence into the Cherokee country, he destroyed all the towns of the lower nation of the Cherokees, killed or made prisoners of a hundred of the enemy, and marching to the relief of Fort Prince George, compelled its assailants to abandon the blockade which they had closely maintained. Most of the Indian prisoners taken in this expedition, were slain by the troops, who were transported with ungovernable rage by finding in the Indian villages the mangled bodies of several of their countrymen, whose appearance proclaimed the horrid tortures in which they had expired. Finding the savages still deaf to his proposals of accommodation, Montgomery marched forward through the *Dismal Swamp*, where he encountered many hardships and dangers, until he arrived within five miles of Etchoe, the central town and settlement of the Cherokees. Here he found himself at the entrance of a deep valley, covered with bushes, and intersected by a muddy river flowing between steep clayey banks. Captain Morison who commanded a company of rangers, was ordered to advance and scour the thicket; but had scarcely entered it when he fell, with several of his men, by the fire which the Indians from this covert poured upon them. The light infantry and grenadiers, now advanced into the thicket and essayed to dislodge the invisible enemy; but the number of the Indians proved to be so great, their position so commanding and difficult of approach, and their resistance so

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valorous and obstinate, that it was necessary to bring the whole British force into action against them; and even when they gave way, they were not put to rout, but retired with undiminished show of resistance from one strong position to another. In this conflict, which continued above an hour, twenty of the British were killed, and seventy-six wounded. Sensible of the difficulty and hazard of farther pursuit, and averse to expose his wounded men to the revenge of a savage enemy, Montgomery gave orders for a retreat, which was conducted with great regularity and precaution to Fort Prince George. Accounting that his orders obliged him now to rejoin the main British army, he withdrew his regiment from Carolina; to the great disappointment and consternation of the inhabitants of this province.

To revenge the calamities of this invasion, and improve the success with which they had finally checked its progress, the Cherokees, assembling a considerable force, laid siege to Fort Loudoun, a small fortification situated near the confines of Virginia. This post which was occupied by two hundred and fifty men under the command of Captain Demeré, was ill supplied with provisions, and precluded by the remoteness of its situation (an hundred and fifty miles distant from Charlestown) and the blockade of the enemy, from all communication with the British settlements and forces. The garrison having sustained a long siege, and subsisted for some time on horse-flesh, was at length reduced to such extremity as to be obliged to surrender the place by capitulation. The Indians, with the most plausible show of equity and moderation, declared that they desired nothing so much as a lasting peace and a fair and regulated trade with the English: and they engaged that the garrison should march out with their baggage, and should be conducted by trusty guides to Virginia or Fort Prince George: but nothing was farther from their intention than the fulfilment of this treaty. The troops had marched scarcely fifteen miles from the evacuated fort, when they were deserted by their attendants, and surrounded by a numerous body of Indian warriors who poured a heavy fire upon them from all sides, and rushed forward to the attack with their usual savage yell. Demeré and all the other officers,¹ together

¹ Except Captain Stuart, whom an Indian chief named *The Little Carpenter*, long

with twenty-five of the soldiers were killed: the rest were made prisoners, and distributed among the different villages and towns of the enemy; whence, after a miserable captivity, they were subsequently redeemed at a great expense by the province of South Carolina. Encouraged by their success at Fort Loudoun, the savages next undertook the siege of Fort Ninety-six, and other small fortifications; but retired precipitately on the approach of a body of provincial troops. This campaign, on the whole, was calculated to raise the hopes of the Cherokees, who at the present period, were capable of bringing three thousand warriors into the field.¹

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While the flames of Indian war thus raged in the southern parts of British America, the northern states beheld with satisfaction the prospect of an entire deliverance from this calamity,—so fatal (from the style of savage warfare, and the desolation and rage which it created) to the virtue as well as the happiness of their people. The Indian inhabitants of the eastern parts of New England, who had always been dependent on the conduct and fortunes of the two rival European powers, had gradually submitted to Britain as the ascendancy of the French arms declined. Among these, the Penobscots, who had dwindled to a very insignificant tribe, in consequence of their adherence to France, and their vicinity to Massachusetts, sent deputies in the commencement of this year to Boston, where a treaty of peace was concluded, by which they acknowledged themselves without restriction or limitation, the subjects of Great Britain. They confessed their rebellion, and the consequent forfeiture of their lands; and accepted, as matter of grace, the privilege of hunting upon them, and using for tillage such portions as might be assigned to them for this purpose. They promised to dwell near Fort Pownall,—a strong hold which had been erected by the governor of Massachusetts; and to deliver up all future offenders of their tribe to be judged by the authorities and laws of that province.

Massachusetts, this year, witnessed the departure of the last governor acceptable to her people, whom she was ever to

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chusetts.

attached to the English and opposed to the war, generously ransomed from his countrymen at the expense of all his substance, and afterwards conducted in safety to Virginia.

¹ Hewit. Williamson. Ann. Reg. for 1760. Smollett. Trumbull. Holmes.

BOOK receive from the appointment of Britain. This was Pownall, X. who was now promoted to the richer presidency of South 1760. Carolina, and was succeeded in Massachusetts by Francis Bernard, formerly a proctor in the ecclesiastical courts of England, and latterly governor of New Jersey. Pownall had been at least as popular, and partly for the same reasons, as his predecessor Shirley. The repute of each of these governors derived a lustre from the vigorous and successful enterprises against the French, by which their administrations were signalized. Shirley, attached to the cause of prerogative, was supported with peculiar zeal by the provincial party which entertained the same sentiments; and yet esteemed by the opponents of this party, who professed a preferable and jealous attachment to popular liberty, for the courtesy with which he treated their persons, and the generous respect which he demonstrated for their avowed views and principles. Pownall was equally, if not more, fortunate in a behaviour, tempered by its varieties to the liking of both parties. Whether from mere disinterested sympathy with the sentiments of the popular party, or because he perceived the prevailing and progressive influence of these sentiments, and their votaries in the province, and accounted that his own future advancement would depend, in a great measure, upon the reputation which he might acquire in Massachusetts, he espoused the principles and courted the friendship of those politicians by whom the interests of provincial liberty were most warmly cherished. Though less courteous, perhaps, in his official character, than Shirley, to his opponents, he diminished the warmth of opposition with many of them, by the kindred gaiety of his manners, in the social intercourse of private life: for, in general, the votaries of pleasure and dissipation were the friends of royal prerogative. The importance of his connexions and influence in England favoured his addresses to all parties: and while he associated familiarly with the politicians by whom the sentiments of the multitude were directed, and gained the general esteem by the liberal principles which he professed, and the industrious attention which he exerted in the conduct of public business, and the frugal expenditure of public money, he indulged a naturally jovial and sprightly disposition, amidst the more aristocratical

circles of fashion and pleasure, with a freedom, which, in those days of remaining puritan strictness, would have attracted from the generality a severe censure against a less popular character. But of the two provincial parties, the one winked at his manners, in consideration of his principles; while many of the other, pardoned or forgot his principles, in sympathy with his gaiety and participation of his amusements. Happily, for the peace of his administration, the engrossing concerns of the war tended to withdraw from view the great controversial points respecting liberty and prerogative, by which former governors and the assembly had been usually divided: and yet so keen were the attacks which he experienced from Hutchinson, Oliver, and other leaders of the party attached to royal prerogative, that he is said to have ardently desired, and heartily rejoiced, at the termination of his command in Massachusetts. It could not have terminated at a period more propitious to his own reputation: for all that Britain was fated to do, in order to render her authority and its administrators popular in America, had now been done. The most favourable interpretation of Pownall's motives, is justified by the recollection of his subsequent conduct. From Massachusetts, he proceeded directly to England, and, gaining a seat in the House of Commons, never actually took possession of his appointment in Carolina; but, both as a senator in the British parliament, and a political writer (for he was the author of several valuable works¹), warmly embraced and ably defended the cause of the colonies in their subsequent quarrel with Britain;—predicting, with accurate but unheeded discernment, the results which were progressively unfolded by the erring course of British policy. When he embarked for England,² both houses of assembly attended him in a body to his barge, and graced his departure with every ceremonial expressive of public kindness and respect.

Bernard, the successor of Pownall, commenced his administration under very favourable auspices. During his short possession of the government of New Jersey, he had

¹ Viz. *Rights of the Colonies stated and defended*, 1769. Speech in favour of America, 1769. *Administration of the British Colonies*, 1774.

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earned so fair a character, that the people of Massachusetts greeted his arrival with expressions of hope and esteem :¹ and one of the earliest communications which he made to the assembly, announced the gratification of the wishes which they had so long and ardently cherished for the subjugation of the French dominion in Canada. Yet even on this interesting occasion, and at a crisis, too, when the subsequent policy of Britain with regard to the retention or cession of Canada, excited the most anxious speculation and apprehension in America, an expression employed by the new governor produced a remarkable display of that difference of sentiment by which the two political parties in Massachusetts were divided. Bernard had embraced the friendship and principles of Hutchinson and the politicians of the same party ; and, whether by their suggestion, or from his own proper motion, in communicating the conquest of Canada to the assembly, he desired the two houses to remember “ the blessings they derive from their *subjection* to Great Britain, without which they could not now have been a free people.” Not even the announcement of the conquest of Canada, could render this language palatable to the people of Massachusetts : nor could their fears of the influence which British jealousy of their spirit might exercise on the articles of the next treaty of peace, altogether restrain an avowal of their repugnance to the governor’s view of their political condition. The council, in their responsive address to Bernard’s message, acknowledged, that “ to their *relation* to Great Britain, they owe their present freedom :” and the house of representatives declared that, while they were duly sensible of the blessings remarked by the governor, “ the whole world must be sensible of the blessings derived to Great Britain from the loyalty of the colonies in general, and from the efforts of this province in particular : which for more than a century past has been wading in blood, and laden with expenses of repelling the common enemy ; without which efforts, Great Britain, at this day, might have had no colonies to defend.”² This language, guarded as it

¹ On his arrival in the province, the assembly granted 1,300*l.* as his salary for the current year, and presented him with an island called Mount Desert, the title to which was afterwards confirmed by the king.

² Yet Hutchinson, himself, the only writer by whom this remarkable proceeding

is, appears deeply significant, when we consider all the circumstances of the period at which it was employed.

Nor was it in Massachusetts alone, that sparks and even flames of controversy were produced by increasing collision between the pretensions of royal or national prerogative, and of popular or provincial liberty. Virginia, at this period, was agitated by a controversy relative to the support of the clergy, but manifestly involving the delicate question of the degree of American subjection to British control. As the termination of this controversy, which was far more remarkable than its origin and progress, did not occur till about three years after, we shall content ourselves, for the present, with merely advert- ing to its existence, as a proof of the contemporaneous prevalence of democratical sentiment and opinion in the various states of America. In North Carolina, at this juncture, a general ferment was excited by the efforts of Dobbs, the royal governor, so to alter (partly by creating new boroughs and counties, and partly by other measures) the system of popular representation, as to insure to the crown an entire ascendant over the deliberations of the provincial assembly. From these measures, after he had pursued them so far as to kindle a high degree of public spirit in the province, he was at last compelled to depart, by the resolute opposition of the assembly, accompanied with such expressions of popular indignation as strongly betokened a revolt against his authority.¹

Towards the conclusion of this year, George the Second, king of Great Britain, at the age of seventy-seven, closed, with his life, a long reign of thirty-four years: the last monarch who died in possession of regal authority over the colonial off-

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has been recorded, hesitates not to declare at this period, that "An empire, separate or distinct from Britain, no man then alive expected or desired to see. From the common increase of inhabitants in a part of the globe which nature afforded every inducement to cultivate, settlements would gradually extend; and, *in distant ages*, an independent empire would probably be formed. This was the language of that day. The greatest hopes from the reduction of Canada, as far as could be judged from the public prayers of the clergy, as well as from the conversation of people in general, were 'to sit quiet under their own vines and fig-trees, and to have none to make them afraid.'" The wishes of the sanguine, no less than the fears of the timid, are frequently the parents of their opinions. Burnaby, an English writer, who travelled through North America in the present and the preceding year, declares that he heard sentiments of independence expressed in almost every state which he visited.

¹ Minot. Hutchinson. Eliot's Biographical Dictionary of New England. Burnaby's Travels in the Middle Settlements of North America in 1759 and 1760. Williamson. Wirt's Life of Henry.

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spring of the British empire in North America. He was succeeded by his grandson George the Third, whose narrow capacity, perverted by an education elaborately mean, and united to an obstinate temper, fitted him to be the confessor and champion of oligarchy, and the enemy of popular liberty in every part of the world. He would justly have deserved to have been classed with the worst of sovereigns, if some incidents of his life had not suggested the apology, that he was often, though by fortune a powerful, yet by nature (even more than by the artificial maxims of human policy) an irresponsible agent. The insanity under which he occasionally laboured, affords a better apology for his errors than can be derived from the political maxim that *the king can do no wrong*. As he retained, at first, the ministers of his grandfather,—whatever hopes or fears may have been generated by his assumption of royalty, in Europe or America, no change in British policy was exhibited for a-while. From neglect or mistake in some official quarter, no formal intelligence of the death of the late king, nor of the accession of his grandson to the throne was transmitted to Massachusetts. But, after waiting some time, the provincial government resolved, in consideration of the notoriety of the fact, to break through the trammels of official etiquette; and accordingly, on nearly the last day of the year proclaimed the royal sway of George the Third,¹—the last performance, it may be hoped, of any such ceremony in New England.

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All the British provinces were now delivered from immediate fear and danger of hostile vicinity, except the southern states, which were still menaced and afflicted with the hostilities of the Cherokees. The most humane and respectable chieftain of this nation, who was distinguished by the title of *The Little Carpenter*, laboured with generous but unsuccessful zeal to extinguish the quarrel. Every offer of peace, however, was spurned by the majority of this high spirited people, who now gained an accession both of strength and of hope from the attitude of defiance and hostility which the powerful

¹ Hutchinson. This year a dreadful fire broke out in Boston, by which nearly a tenth part of the town was destroyed. Besides the contributions in Massachusetts, the assemblies of New York and Pennsylvania passed acts for appropriating a part of their public funds to the relief of the sufferers.—Holmes.

tribe of the Creeks, excited by French agents, began to assume
towards the British. South Carolina had already expended
more than fifty thousand pounds sterling in defence of its
frontiers, without obtaining any considerable advantage over
the enemy. Bull, the lieutenant-governor of this province,
applied again for assistance to General Amherst, who, as
Canada was now entirely reduced, could more conveniently
spare a detachment of his forces adequate to the purpose of
humbling the savages. Montgomery having embarked for
England, Colonel Grant, on whom the command of the High-
land regiment devolved, received orders to reconduct it to the
relief of Carolina, and arrived for this purpose at Charlestown
in the commencement of the year. A provincial regiment
was raised to act in conjunction with the British force: and,
with the addition of a troop of Indian allies, Grant was able
to muster a body of two thousand six hundred men, which he
conducted in the month of May to Fort Prince George. Here
he was met by the Indian chief called *The Little Carpenter*,
who, adjuring the British to remember how long and how
zealously he had approved himself their friend, solicited yet a
little farther time to pacify his countrymen, and a pause
in the advance of the invading force, till the issue of this,
his last effort of mediation, were seen. But Grant refused
to hearken to the chief's proposal; and having completed
the preliminary inquiries and arrangements for the expedi-
tion, commenced his march from Fort Prince George for
the Cherokee towns. Captain Kennedy, with ninety Indi-
ans, and thirty woodmen painted like Indians, marched
in front of the army, and scoured the forests: and after
them, followed a troop of two hundred light infantry and
rangers. By the vigilance and activity of these forerun-
ners, Grant designed to secure his main force, which fol-
lowed in their train, from annoyance, surprise, and confusion.
The troops, by forced marches, passed two narrow and dan-
gerous defiles, without having received a shot from the enemy:
but on the fourth day of their march, they encountered the
forces of the Cherokees at the same spot where Montgomery
had fought with them in the preceding year. The Indians
had chosen their position well, and though, when they saw
the British approach, they forsook it in order to try the effect

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of a sudden and furious attack, which was repulsed, they regained it, and used all its advantages with a skill and bravery which it required the most determined efforts of Grant's troops to overcome.¹ After a spirited engagement, which lasted for three hours, the Cherokees began to give way, and at length fled from the field of battle with a celerity, which, combined with their superior knowledge of the country, eluded pursuit. Between fifty and sixty of the British were killed and wounded: the loss of the Indians was not ascertained. Immediately after the action, Grant proceeded to the adjacent town of Etchoe, which he reached about midnight, and the next day reduced to ashes. Every other town in the middle settlements of the Cherokees, shared the same fate: the magazines and corn-fields of the tribe were destroyed; and the miserable Indians were driven to seek what shelter and subsistence their barren mountains might afford them. Having inflicted this severe blow, Grant returned to Fort Prince George; where, a few days after, *the Little Carpenter*, accompanied by other chiefs of the Cherokees, repaired to his camp and solicited peace. Articles of pacific treaty were accordingly adjusted, and not long after were solemnly ratified in a convention held by the same Indian chiefs, with Bull and the provincial council of South Carolina, at Ashley ferry;² with mutual expressions of hope that the friendly relations, thus re-established, might endure as long as the sun should shine, and the rivers flow. The reduction of the Cherokees was one of the last humbling strokes given to the power and influence of France in North America.³

Conclu-
sion of the
Cherokee
war.

Affairs of
South Ca-
rolina.

This was the only occasion on which any one of the British colonies had ever besought and obtained the assistance of the forces of the parent state in conducting a war with the Indians. Some of the inhabitants of South Carolina appear to have

¹ Amherst, in his despatches to England relative to this action, reported that "Colonel Grant says that the provincials have behaved well, as he always expected they would do."

² One of Grant's requisitions was that the Indians should deliver either four of their tribe to be executed in presence of the British army, or four green scalps of Cherokee warriors. This barbarous demand was resisted by the Indians, who maintained that they were much more justly entitled to make a similar requisition against the people of Virginia, whose ingratitude and inhumanity had first given occasion to the war. It was remitted by the wisdom and humanity of Bull.

³ Annual Register for 1761. Hewit. Trumbull. Wynne. Holmes.

been forcibly struck with the singular inability thus confessed by their native province to provide for its own security, and to render its domestic resources available and sufficient to its external defence. The cause of this singularity was easily perceived to be the great disproportion between the number of freemen in the province, and the negro slaves, of whom vast numbers had been recently imported by the slave-traders of Britain. To promote the public security, and check the growth of the evil by which it was thus undermined, a law was enacted in the present year by the provincial assembly, imposing so high a duty on every additional slave imported into South Carolina, as to amount in effect nearly to a prohibition of farther importation.¹ But this law was rescinded by the crown, as inconsistent with the interests of British commerce.

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Notwithstanding the conquest of Canada, the military exertions of the British colonies in North America were but partially relaxed. A letter addressed this year by Pitt to the provincial governors, represented that the king was determined still vigorously to prosecute the war, until the enemy should be compelled to accept of peace on terms conducive to the advantage and glory of his crown, and to the welfare, in particular, of his subjects in America; and required the colonies to co-operate with the royal policy, by raising troops to the amount of two-thirds of the forces which they had contributed for the campaign of the preceding year. This requisition was promptly complied with. The repairing and strengthening of the numerous posts in the extensive territory of Canada; the construction of new fortifications requisite to secure the conquered country, and to cover and guard the colonies, in case of Canada being again restored to France; the erection of houses and barracks at the various places where it seemed expedient that garrisons should be maintained,—demanded exertions which the colonists, and especially the people of New England, were prompted alike by their wishes and their fears strenuously to contribute. Wishing that Canada might

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1761. And see Ramsay's History of the American Revolution. Among other written instructions communicated by the crown to Benning Wentworth, the governor of New Hampshire, on the 30th of June, 1761, the 27th article directs that "You are not to give your assent to, nor pass any law imposing duties on negroes imported into New Hampshire."—Gordon.

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be annexed to the British empire, they were eager to strengthen the hold of it which Britain had obtained; and fearing that it would be ceded to France, they were anxious to guard themselves as well as possible against the vicinity of peril and disquiet thus again to be reproduced, and to fortify every post not likely to be included in the cession. Both in Europe and in America, the approach of peace was generally supposed to be somewhat nearer than it eventually proved. In the present year, a correspondence¹ took place between the ministers of Britain and France on this important subject, and was carried so far as to develope the views of both cabinets with regard to the fundamental articles of a treaty of peace. The keen, extensive penetration and sagacity of Pitt, however, perceived that this desirable consummation was retarded by the altered dispositions of Spain; and discerned in the overtures of the Spanish monarch to mediate between Britain and France, a purpose, only suspended by political convenience, to espouse and support the French interest and quarrel. In vain, Pitt pressed his colleagues in the cabinet (of whom, some hated, and others feared him) to embrace this view, and to disarm, by anticipating, the meditated hostility of Spain. Supported by the king, they withstood his urgency, and defeated his wishes: and Pitt, perceiving that he could no longer guide the cabinet, but, remaining in it, must seem to approve by his presence, counsels which he reckoned feeble and pernicious, resigned his ministerial office. To soothe the wounded pride of the fallen minister, and to appease the national displeasure at his secession from the cabinet, he was enriched with a munificent pension, and a peerage was bestowed on his wife and their issue.² The Spanish court, at the same time, as if to aid the adversaries of Pitt, and promote the delusion which these politicians honestly embraced, or artfully countenanced, published the most solemn declaration of its pacific intentions, and disavowed every purpose which Pitt had imputed to it.

¹ It is impossible to peruse the correspondence without being struck with the stately and disdainful dignity (or rather arrogance) of Pitt's temper and language.

² So much enslaved was this great man to aristocratical illusions, that he (who had previously rejected the approaches of Franklin with cold indifference or disdain) is said to have been affected to tears by a few words of hollow civility addressed to him by the narrow-minded monarch who regarded him with fear and aversion, and gladly accepted his resignation of office.

But whatever delusion might thus have been created or fortified, was dissipated in the commencement of the following year, when the war, which Pitt had predicted, broke forth at length between Britain and Spain. The British cabinet in this emergency, without recalling Pitt to office, availed itself of the vigorous posture which the empire had assumed under the influence and direction of his genius. While a powerful armament was despatched for the reduction of the Spanish settlement at Havanna, the British troops on the continent of America received orders to undertake an expedition against the French West Indian colony of Martinico. This last project was communicated to the British colonies in North America by the Earl of Egremont, the successor to Pitt's office, who pressed it upon them as a reason for supporting as many forces as they had contributed in the former year. The provincial assemblies approved and obeyed this requisition with an eagerness for which it is easier to assign many plausible reasons, than to ascertain the one which actually possessed the greatest influence with them. It was, they deemed, their interest, by replacing the British regulars in the Canadian garrisons, to diminish any difficulty which the parent state might experience in retaining her American conquest; and, by facilitating the progress of British victory, to render Canada not the only spoil which the enemy would seek to recover at the next treaty of peace. There had been formed, too, by recent circumstances, among the colonial population, a numerous class of persons whom habit had attached to military pursuits, and who, at this crisis, were not less fitted to subserve the external interests, than unlikely to promote the internal welfare of the provincial communities to which they belonged. Such an actual redundancy of inhabitants was produced by the recent military efforts and their cessation, in Massachusetts, that from this province alone, nearly six hundred persons emigrated to Nova Scotia in the preceding year. For one, or other, or all of these reasons, the provincial governments not only raised with alacrity the forces which they were required to support in America, but offered bounties to encourage the enlistment of their people into the regular troops of the parent state.¹ About nine hundred men were

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¹ "This," says Hutchinson, "is a singular occurrence." Hutchinson seems to

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1762. thus added by Massachusetts, to the expedition of the British forces against the insular colonies of France. All the enterprises of Britain this year proved successful. Havanna was wrested, by conquest, from Spain: Martinico was won from France; and along with it, fell Granada, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and every other settlement which the French had acquired in the extensive chain of the Caribbee Islands. The zeal which New England evinced for these enterprises,¹ cost her the loss of a considerable number of men. Of the troops which she contributed to the British armament, so many were killed, and so many perished by disease, that very few returned to their native country. A transient gleam of success attended the arms of France in America. The island of Newfoundland was compelled to submit to the sudden attack of a French squadron; but even before the arrival of the succour which England promptly afforded, it was retaken by a British force despatched thither by General Amherst, under the command of Lord Colville.²

Notwithstanding the harmony thus manifested between the martial spirit and purposes of Britain and her colonies, the most violent discontents were engendered in America, partly by the pressure of the British commercial restrictions, and partly by the unpopular and arbitrary policy pursued by certain of the royal governors. Nothing can prove more strongly the force of these internal discontents than the occasional eruptions of their malignity which broke forth even at a crisis like the present, when the Americans were sensible that their most important interests depended upon the policy which Britain might choose to pursue, in the negotiations, which were speedily expected, for a general peace. In Massachu-

Discon-
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Massachu-
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have possessed a subtle and active, rather than an elevated or comprehensive mind; and to have been more capable of ascertaining, than of appreciating and classifying, the details of a wide and various prospect.

¹ "When Martinico was attacked, the British forces, greatly weakened by sickness and death, were enabled by the timely arrival of the New England troops, to prosecute and accomplish the reduction of the island. A great part of the British force being about to sail from thence for Havanna, the New Englanders, whose health had been much impaired by service and the climate, were sent off in three ships, as invalids, to their own country. Before they had completed the voyage, they found themselves restored, ordered the ships to veer about, steered immediately for Havanna, and, arriving when the British were too much reduced to expect success, enabled them, by this opportune succour, to achieve the conquest of the place."—Gordon.

² Ann. Reg. for 1761 and 1762. Wynne. Trumbull. Hutchinson. Holmes.

setts, a variety of circumstances had occurred since the commencement of Bernard's administration, to excite popular odium against this governor, and to develop and inflame the distinctions between the friends of American liberty, and the partizans of British prerogative, among whom the most conspicuous were Bernard himself, and his deputy, Hutchinson, who exercised unbounded influence over him. Governor Shirley had promised the office of judge in the provincial court to Otis, an able and popular lawyer in Boston: and on the death of Sewall, the chief justice of this court, shortly after Bernard's accession, the public hope and expectation were fixed on the promotion of Otis, but disappointed by the conduct of Bernard, who bestowed the office of chief justice on Hutchinson,¹ with expressions that gave Otis to understand that he had nothing to hope from the existing administration. Otis, thus baulked of the elevation to which his merit entitled, and the public voice designed him, was stimulated both by patriotism and by personal resentment, to withdraw his support from the government, and to court exclusively the popular favour. His conduct, however, was moderate, in comparison with that of his son, James Otis, also a lawyer, a man of fiery violent disposition and superior talents, who had hitherto filled with credit an official situation in the public service. Transported with indignation² at the treatment of his father, Otis, the younger, instantly resigned his office, and exerted the most indefatigable industry and ability in advocating popular rights, and promoting and supporting every complaint that might diminish the credit of government. Roused by the zeal and eloquence of such a leader, the popular party began to assume a bolder and more confident tone, and to bestir themselves with an amazing increase of activity in defending the provincial liberty, and arraigning whatever their

¹ Hutchinson says that he warned Bernard of the impolicy of this proceeding, which, in effect, proved highly detrimental to the reputation of them both; but that Bernard declared, that even though Hutchinson should decline the appointment, Otis should not obtain it. Gordon asserts that Hutchinson, by his eager and adroit solicitation, procured the office for himself. It is certain, that he *accepted* an appointment which he knew would prove generally disagreeable to his countrymen.

² Otis, the younger, is said to have declared on this occasion that "he would set the province in flames, even though he should perish by the fire." He certainly kindled, or at least fanned and inflamed the political conflagration that ensued, and was himself one of its earliest victims.

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inflamed vigilance and jealousy deemed an encroachment upon it. The distinction created between the colonists and the inhabitants of the parent state, by the British commercial restrictions, gave occasion to the first display of this newly awakened spirit. A rooted aversion subsisted between the officers of the customs in the port of Boston, and the merchants concerned in the foreign trade of the province. The odium unavoidably attached to the duties of those officers, was increased by the zeal which they exerted to obtain the approbation of the British government, and to enrich themselves by a rigorous discharge of their functions, and numerous confiscations. The antipathy had gradually become more and more violent and personal; and the execution of the laws appeared like the triumph of private revenge. Loud and frequent complaints arose, that a superfluous severity was employed to carry into effect vexatious regulations of trade, which, in other colonies, were suffered to be evaded from a conviction of their unreasonableness and the impracticability of their general execution. The abuses which were suspected to exist in the department of the revenue, and the notoriety of the fact, that after all the severities which were inflicted, no part of the confiscations ever reached the public exchequer, prompted the merchants to scrutinize the proceedings of the commissioners of customs. Some irregularities were detected, and reported to the assembly, which, in spite of the utmost exertions of the governor, ordered an action of damages to be brought against the commissioners. The issue of the suit¹ was creditable to

¹ This suit had special relation to an act of parliament passed in the sixth year of the reign of George the Second, and ever since regarded by the Americans as a grievance; imposing a duty of sixpence per gallon on all foreign molasses imported into the colonies, and awarding one-third of all forfeited cargoes to the king for the use of the colony where the forfeiture should be inflicted, one-third to the governor, and the remainder to the informer. The first of these shares had never been appropriated in terms of the act; but it had generally been rendered tributary to the more complete indemnification of the informers.

The duty on molasses was so heavy as to amount to a virtual prohibition of the importation, which, accordingly was entirely confined to contraband channels. Some years before this period, in consequence of a representation by Bollan, the provincial agent at London to the British ministers, it was signified that a reduction of the duty would be granted if the provincial assembly would petition for this measure, and engage that the reduced duty would be cheerfully paid. The assembly were on the point of taking this step when they were dissuaded from it by the advice of Hutchinson, who, with less consideration for the wishes of the British cabinet than his subsequent conduct evinced, cautioned his countrymen against any voluntary recognition of the propriety of an impost generally deemed obnoxious by the people.

the justice of the inhabitants of Boston : for, notwithstanding the public irritation that prevailed, the jury were sensible that the complaint had not been properly substantiated, and returned a verdict for the defendants. It had been, till of late years, a common practice of the collectors and inferior officers of the customs, without any other authority than what they derived from their commissions, forcibly to enter warehouses, and even dwelling-houses, on receiving information that contraband goods were secreted within their walls. The people, at length, began to resent the exercise of this assumed authority : some stood on their defence against the officers, while others sued them in actions at law for illegal invasion of their premises : and in consequence, the formality of a peculiar judicial writ had been latterly employed to legalize the operation of forcible entry. By the ingenuity of Otis, an objection was suggested to the validity of these writs ; and a new suit, involving this point, was instituted : but the decision, which, on this occasion, rested with the judges, again proved favourable to the commissioners of customs. These judicial proceedings, which were regarded with intense interest, though their immediate issue seemed advantageous to the crown, produced impressions far more advantageous to the views and sentiments of the popular party. The people were taught to believe that they were regarded by the government of the parent state as a portion of its subjects degraded beneath the level of English liberty and constitutional law ; and that harsh statutes were severely enforced against them, but arbitrarily relaxed in favour of the officers of the crown, by judges devoted to the interest of royal prerogative. Men began to inquire with more attention than before, into the precise nature of the relations subsisting between the colonies and the British nation : and every argument which gave colour to pleas opposed to the colonial policy of the parent state, was favourably received by a great majority of the people.¹ Bernard, perceiving the disturbance which the public mind had undergone, in a speech to the assembly, cautioned them against listening to declamations

¹ " From various events, men were prepared to think more favourably of independency before any measures were taken with a professed design of attaining it."—Hutchinson.

BOOK X. which tended to promote a suspicion of the security of the civil rights of the people, and which, however suited to the reigns of Charles and James, were (he declared) at the present era entirely groundless and inappropriate. The assembly in answer to this communication, expressed their regret at the governor's mistake in supposing that party spirit could influence their deliberations; promised a due attention to his recommendation; and declared that it was their purpose *to see with their own eyes*. From the general proneness of mankind to cherish immoderate hope, and yet to indulge a jealous impatience and discontent, there is no topic, which, supported with ordinary plausibility, is more acceptable to the members of any social community, than the notion that they are hardly and unjustly dealt with. Unfortunately for the contentment of the colonists, and the integrity of the British empire, this popular topic, derived too much corroborative illustration from the conduct and policy of the parent state. The exertions of Otis recommended him so highly to the favour of his countrymen, that in the year 1761, the town of Boston elected him one of its representatives in the provincial assembly: and chiefly by his influence, was this body induced, in the present year, to adopt a proceeding of very remarkable character and import, in vindication of its own privileges and of the provincial liberty. After the number of forces for the year had been voted, and during a recess of the assembly, the fishing towns on the coast were alarmed by the intelligence that a French squadron had arrived at Newfoundland. In this emergency, the inhabitants of Salem and Marblehead petitioned the governor and council to cause a ship and sloop belonging to the province, to be fitted out and employed for the protection of the vessels engaged in the fishery; and the governor and council not only complied with this request, but resolved to augment the complement of men on board of the sloop, and for this purpose offered a bounty for the encouragement of the additional enlistment which they deemed expedient. The whole expense of this bounty did not exceed four hundred pounds sterling: and the measure might have been justified by various precedents in the history of the colony. But the assembly was not in a temper to admit such justification. In a remonstrance, composed for them by Otis, and

addressed to the governor, they denounced the measure which he adopted as an invasion of "their most darling privilege, the right of originating all taxes; and tantamount to an annihilation of one branch of the legislature." They proceeded warmly to declare, that "*it would be of little consequence to the people whether they were subjects to George the King of Great Britain, or Louis the French king, if both were as arbitrary as both would be, with the power of levying taxes without parliament;*" and concluded by praying the governor, "as he regards the peace and welfare of the province, that no measures of this nature be taken for the future, let the advice of the council be what it may." With some difficulty, the governor, assisted by the partizans of prerogative and the friends of moderation, prevailed with the house to expunge from its remonstrance and records the passage in which the king's name was introduced with such boldness of freedom. The British government, ignorant or regardless of the whole proceeding, derived no instruction from the ominous indication that had been afforded of the spirit and temper of the American people.¹

In North Carolina, the discontents which we have already noted, and traced to the conduct of Governor Dobbs, were prolonged and confirmed by the continuance of his arbitrary and insolent administration. In the first year of the present king's reign, it had been provided by an act of parliament, that the commissions of the English judges should not, as heretofore, be vacated by the demise of the sovereign. Imitating this wise provision, and conforming, as they supposed, to the principle which required an assimilation between the provincial statutes and those of the parent state, the assembly of this province passed a law enacting that the judges in its supreme court should hold their offices by the tenure of their good behaviour, instead of by the precarious dependence to

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and in
North Ca-
rolina.

¹ "It must astonish the political observer, that at such a moment, when the genius of the British nation may be said to have appeared and pointed to the most fatal convulsion in her history, no notice was taken of the warning. Her ministers, either distracted with the weight of the public debt, overlooked every thing but the immediate means of collecting a revenue; or, ignorant of the growth, enterprise, and advantages of the colonists, carelessly suffered a disagreement among these distant subjects, which deserved the interposition of the highest authority, to be aggravated by private rancour and prejudice, the contemptible spirit of party, and the domineering pride of inferior officers."—Minot.

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 1762. which they had been hitherto restricted, on the pleasure of the governor. Dobbs, though he was instructed to grant no commissions of longer or securer duration than his own pleasure or discretion, and to approve no laws encroaching in the slightest degree on the royal prerogative, nevertheless consulted on this occasion the chief justice and the attorney-general of the province, who united in advising him to assent to the law, which, they declared, "would restore life to the government, and protection to the subject." The governor, however, thought proper to refuse his assent; and farther signified his displeasure by dissolving the assembly. The disposition of this officer was not less sordid than tyrannical. A system of chicane at once insolent and ingenious, enabled him to augment his official perquisites by multiplying the occasions and augmenting the amount of the fees which he exacted from the colonists; and the agents of Lord Granville, to whom we have seen a portion of the provincial territory reserved;—emulating his example, carried their extortions to such a height as in some instances to provoke a forcible resistance. Numerous complaints were transmitted to England, both by the assembly and the planters against the conduct of the governor and of Lord Granville's agents: and both the British cabinet and Lord Granville are said to have been impressed with the justice of these complaints, though neither chose to redress the wrongs they indicated, by an effectual remedy. Lord Granville remitted his vassals to the remedy of legal process, which from the nature of the case, and the circumstances of the province, was utterly inapplicable: and the British government contented itself with sending to the colony William Tryon, a military officer, with the appointment of lieutenant-governor, and the promise of obtaining the supreme command as soon as Dobbs should retire—a promise of which Dobbs deferred the fulfilment till his own death in the spring of the year 1765. Among his other qualities, Dobbs was distinguished by a real or affected bigotry to the ecclesiastical establishment and ordinances of the parent state: and various laws were passed from time to time during his administration for promoting the pre-eminence of the church of England, and restraining the liberties of dissenters. From the power and number of the dissenters, however, these laws were but par-

tially and feebly executed : and during the subsequent administration of Tryon, who was a stranger to bigotry, the most illiberal of their provisions were repealed.¹

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A mutual disposition for peace had latterly prevailed in the belligerent nations. France was depressed and weakened by her misfortunes : Spain had similar reasons to desire a cessation of the hostilities which she had rashly provoked : and Britain was sated with success, and embarrassed by the expenses of her exertions. A diminished interest in the progress of the war appeared throughout the whole British empire ; and the public concern was more forcibly engaged by consideration of the terms of the anticipated treaty of peace, on which the substantial value of the preceding efforts was considered to depend. In America, there prevailed but one wish on this subject : every man who had the welfare of his country at heart, whatever might be his sentiments or opinions with regard to the duration of her connexion with Britain, ardently desired that Canada might not revert to the possession of France, and that the growth, happiness, and security of the colonial population might no longer be repressed and menaced by the near vicinity of a rival power, equally dexterous, ambitious, and enterprising. But this desire was combined with a great deal of anxious apprehension ; for it was well known in America that the English nation and ministry were divided in opinion on the question whether it was most expedient to retain Canada, or the islands which had been subdued in the West Indies ; and it was equally notorious that the main objection to the retention of Canada, was derived from the notion that the annexation of it to the British empire would infallibly promote, and sooner or later produce a disruption of the colonies of Britain from their parent state. It was unhappy for British authority that at a crisis so interesting, the idea of independence was thus forcibly awakened in the minds of the Americans.² In England, a considerable party, strongly cherishing the renown which had attended the conquest of Canada, were prompted to desire that their government should

¹ Minot. Hutchinson. Eliot's Biographical Dictionary. Williamson. Gordon.

² " This jealousy in England being known, was of itself sufficient to set enterprising men upon considering how far such a separation was expedient and practicable."—Hutchinson.

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insist on the retention of a territory acquired with so much courage and glory, and which at once enlarged the extent and (as they supposed) promoted the security of the British empire in America. These impressions were reinforced by an able pamphlet written by Israel Mauduit, a merchant of London, brother of Jasper Mauduit, the agent for the province of Massachusetts, which forcibly exposed the impolicy of German wars, and with earnest and vigorous reasoning, urged upon the public mind the importance of Canada, and the necessity of preserving this acquisition for the welfare of those colonies which formed so considerable and valuable a branch of the British empire. In the year 1760, when views of peace began first to be entertained, the Earl of Bath expressed his sentiments in a composition which he entitled, *A letter to two great men (Pitt, and the Duke of Newcastle)* on the terms for which Britain should insist in her negotiations with France; and warmly recommended the retention of Canada. This publication was answered by a pamphlet which appeared in the same year and was commonly ascribed to the celebrated Edmund Burke and his brother, and in which, opinions and views of policy diametrically opposite to those of Lord Bath were supported. A division of opinion upon this important point, certainly prevailed both in the British cabinet and the nation at large: though, doubtless, the majority of the nation were disposed to wish that Canada might be retained. Franklin,¹ alarmed for the interest of his country, now entered with his usual talent and address into the controversy, and published his sentiments in a pamphlet which he entitled, *The interest of Great Britain considered with regard to the colonies, and the acquisition of Canada and Guadalupe*. In a clear and forcible manner he descanted on the advantages which Britain might expect to derive from the retention of Canada: he maintained that the security of an established dominion was a prudent and justifiable ground for demanding territorial cessions from an enemy; that the erection of forts in the back settlements of the British colonies could never afford a sufficient security against the inroads of the French and the Indians; that this

¹ Franklin did not return to America from his first mission to England till the summer of 1762.

security could be gained only by the possession of Canada; C H A P. VI.
 and that the abandonment of so great an advantage, now placed within the reach of the British government, would 1762.
 imply a wide departure from good policy, and tend to promote disgust and disaffection in the minds of the Americans. Whatever was the influence or effect of this publication, the views which it supported, were embraced by the British cabinet, and especially by Pitt, whose communications to the French ministry in 1761 expressed the determined purpose of Britain to retain her conquests in America. France herself, at that time, was willing to surrender Canada, but urged, ineffectually, the restoration of Cape Breton. Contrary to the expectations of the Americans, the subsequent conquests of Britain in other quarters, rather impaired than promoted the likelihood of the retention of Canada, by tempting the political and commercial speculators in the parent state to balance between this advantage and the permanent acquisition of the islands subdued in the West Indies. Lord Hardwick, though not at present possessing any ostensible share in the administration, was much respected and consulted by the actual members of the cabinet; and his advice on this occasion (uninfluenced by any fears of American independence, and prompted solely by commercial considerations) was, that Britain should retain the West India islands, and abandon Canada. But the policy which, under the auspices of Pitt, had been embraced in 1761, ultimately prevailed again with the British ministry, and was made the basis of the negotiations which ensued in the close of this year between the Duke of Bedford and the Duke de Nivernois, who, as commissioners for the belligerent nations, repaired to Fontainebleau, where they soon arranged and signed the preliminary articles of a treaty of peace, which was definitively concluded at Paris in 1763.
 the commencement of the following year. By this treaty, the French monarch renounced all pretensions whatever to Nova Scotia, which he guaranteed in the amplest manner to the king of Great Britain: he also ceded to his Britannic majesty, the full right to Canada and its dependencies, together with Cape Breton, and all the other islands and coasts adjoining the river and gulf of St. Lawrence; disclaiming all reservation of pretence to require the slightest departure from Feb. 10.
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this general cession and guarantee. In order to remove for ever the occasion of such territorial disputes as had produced the late war, it was stipulated that the confines between the dominions of Great Britain and France on the continent of North America, should be fixed irrevocably by a line drawn along the centre of the river Mississippi from its source, as far as the river Iberville ; and from thence, by a line drawn along the middle of the river, and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain to the sea ; and to effectuate this stipulation, the French king ceded and guaranteed to the British monarch, the river and port of Mobile, and all the French claims and possessions on the left side of the Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans and the island on which it is situated, which were reserved to France. The British king, on the other hand, restored to France all the islands which had been reduced, whether in the West Indies or on the coast of France, except Granada and the Granadines, which were retained by Britain and ceded by France. He also restored to the king of Spain all the British conquests of Spanish settlements in the West Indies : and in return, the Spanish monarch ceded to Britain the settlement of Florida, with the Fort St. Augustine, and the Bay of Pensacola, and all the territory that Spain possessed or claimed on the continent of North America, to the east or to the south-east of the river Mississippi. It was stipulated that the inhabitants of the countries ceded by France and Spain, should be allowed the enjoyment of the Roman catholic faith and the exercise of its rites *as far as might be consistent with the laws of Great Britain*,—an absurd and unintelligible qualification, which, from the illiberal strain of British ecclesiastical law at that period, might have given scope to the most enormous oppression and injustice ;—and that they should retain their civil rights while they chose to remain under the British government, and yet be entitled to dispose of their estates to British subjects and retire with the produce, without hindrance or molestation, to any part of the world. Such were the principal articles of the treaty, which had relation to the continent of America. By the treaty of Utrecht, the French court had been reduced to the humiliating necessity of undertaking to destroy the fortifications of Dunkirk : and by the present treaty, an article far more insulting

to France than advantageous to England, provided for the residence at Dunkirk of an English commissary charged to watch against any attempt of the French government to reformatify the place. This insolent stipulation awakened a keen, profound, vindictive, resentment in the breast of every Frenchman to whom the honour of his country was dear.

A few months after the ratification of the treaty, a proclamation which was issued by the British king, among other matters, announced the erection, within the territories ceded by France and Spain, of four distinct and separate governments which were to be styled by the names of Quebec, East Florida, West Florida, and Granada. Besides the other territorial distributions specified in this proclamation, Cape Breton and the adjacent islands were united to the government of Nova Scotia; and the region situated between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's, was annexed to the province of Georgia. The proclamation farther announced that, in testimony of the royal approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and soldiers of the British armies, and in recompense of their merits, the governors of the three new colonies on the continent, and the other royal governors of provinces on the continent of North America, were commanded and empowered to grant lands, without fee or price, to all reduced officers who had served in America during the late war, and to all private soldiers disbanded and actually residing in America who should personally apply for such grants: the lands so granted, however, being declared subject, at the expiration of ten years, to the same quit-rents usually exacted within the provinces where they were respectively situated, and the possessors incurring subjection to the usual obligations of cultivation and improvement.¹

In no part of the British dominions, did the peace of Paris excite such lively satisfaction as in North America. To the people of this country the war had been far more burdensome than to the inhabitants of Britain, both in the amount of taxation which it demanded, and in all the other inconveniences and sufferings which attend the motions of armies, friendly or hostile, and the usual events and exigencies of war. New

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¹ Ann. Reg. for 1762 and 1763. Franklin's Memoirs. Trumbull. Hutchinson. Holmes. Memoirs and Reminiscences of Count Segur.

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England had generally maintained ten thousand men in the field; and, as the provincials never enlisted for more than a single campaign, a new army was to be raised, new bounties bestowed, and new clothing furnished, every spring. And, now, by a treaty, of which it had been utterly beyond their power to regulate or influence the terms, the colonists beheld the war, which had carried ravage and revolution of empire into every part of the world, terminated by an arrangement incomparably more beneficial to them than to any other portion of the subjects of the British crown. Instead of seeing the trophies of their valour resigned, as on former occasions, for the real or supposed advantage of the parent state, they saw Britain part with her other conquests, in order to justify the retention of those acquisitions in which alone they were interested. They beheld their territories enlarged—their internal growth promoted—their commerce and fisheries secured—and the enemies, who had inflicted so much misery and desolation upon them, deprived at length of the power of farther injury, and reduced to circumstances in which, far from menacing the safety, they became tributary to the advantage of the British colonies and the wealth and grandeur of Britain. One blended sentiment of hope, happiness, and gratitude was circulated throughout America,—warm and sincere while it lasted, though fated to be exceedingly transient. Many of the inhabitants of New England, who inherited the strong and deep-seated piety of their forefathers, felt this noble emotion powerfully awakened by a sense of exulting gratification, which they could never freely indulge, unless it were mixed and imbued with a relish of religion, and devoutly declared that only the kind providence of that Being, who supremely controls human counsel, regulates destiny, and diffuses good, could have blessed America with a consummation so glorious and happy. Notwithstanding the discontents and dissensions which prevailed in most of the colonies, every other feeling was, for the time, overborne by the current of general joy. The assembly of Massachusetts, in a congratulatory address to the governor, declared, *that the manifest design of the French, to surround the colonies, had been the just and immediate cause of the war*;¹ that, without the assistance

¹ This was, doubtless, the genuine and deliberate conviction of the Americans.

of the parent state, they must have fallen a prey to the power of France: that, without the compensation granted to them by parliament, the burdens of the war had been insupportable; and, without the provisions of the treaty of peace, all its successes must have been fruitless and delusive. In an address to the king, they repeated the same acknowledgments, and pledged themselves, in conclusion, to demonstrate their gratitude by every possible testimony of duty and loyalty. These expressions were not merely the effusion of popular warmth and transport,—they were embraced and approved by the most jealous, able, and resolute defenders of American liberty, against the excesses of British domination and royal prerogative.¹ Never was attachment to Britain more warmly or generally prevalent in America than at this period. British glory, and American safety and prosperity, seemed to be identified; and even the ambitious hope of national independence, which some Americans had associated with the conquest of Canada, was silenced by a grateful sense of the generosity (as it was deemed) by which the gratification of this hope had been approximated. But long cherished feelings, though suspended, were not subdued; and, amidst the tumultuous flow of pleasure and exultation in America, an intelligent eye might have discerned symptoms of which, a sound regard to British ascendancy required the most cautious, forbearing, and indulgent treatment; for it was manifest that the exultation of the Americans was founded, in no small degree, upon the conviction that *their own proper strength* was augmented, and that they had attained a state of security which lessened at once their danger from neighbouring hostility, and their dependence on the protection, so often delusive and precarious, of the parent state.²

Perhaps in none of the colonies, at this period, were feelings and notions, akin to independence, more strongly cherished or more distinctly expressed, than in Virginia, where the most dazzling eloquence (a faculty of which this province has been singularly prolific) was employed to defend and embellish the

And yet (such changes can passion and policy produce), about thirteen years after, they addressed a declaration of very opposite import to the court of France. See Book XI. chap. v. *post*.

¹ See Note VIII. at the end of the volume.

² Minot. Trumbull. Hutchinson.

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¹ *Ante*, Book I. chap. iii.

appealed to the king and privy council, who promptly denounced the act of 1758 as an illegal usurpation of power, and declared it utterly null and void. The clergymen now brought actions at law for ascertaining and retrieving the loss and damage they had sustained from the illegal enforcement of the rescinded act: and as the judges could not refuse to acknowledge the relevancy of these suits, the promoters of them confidently anticipated a complete triumph and indemnification. It remained that the damages should be assessed by a jury: which seemed merely a matter of arithmetical calculation. In this emergency the popular party entrusted their cause to Patrick Henry,¹ one of the most remarkable men that Virginia or even America has ever produced. He was the son of parents unwealthy, but in easy circumstances; and after a slender education, commenced life as a store-keeper. But his youth was passed in idleness, though not in sensuality or debauchery: he preferred the conversation to the custom of the persons who resorted to his store; and neglecting his business, was forced to abandon it, nearly in a state of insolvency. He next attempted to support himself by agriculture; but though he tilled with his own hands the soil of the province of which he was afterwards to be the governor, his negligent and irregular habits, caused this attempt to issue as unfortunately as the former. A second experiment of mercantile pursuits, ended still more disastrously; for he became completely bankrupt. These repeated failures and disappointments, the more harassing because he had married at an early age, were unable to depress Henry's spirit,² though they seriously impaired his reputation. He seemed a man incapable of succeeding even in pursuits which persons of very moderate capacity were able to conduct with credit and suc-

Patrick
Henry.

¹ "Henry, the forest-born Demosthenes,
Whose thunder shook the Philip of the seas."

LORD BYRON.

² "His misfortunes," says Jefferson, who became acquainted with him at this period, "were not to be traced either in his countenance or conduct." Eloquence apart, Henry seems, in genius and character, to have strongly resembled Cromwell. They were assimilated, too, in the abortive issue of their attempts to sustain a humble and ordinary part in social life. In this respect, Washington was superior to them both. While he could sustain the dignity of the most elevated pursuits, he could impart dignity to humble avocations, and render them tributary to his credit and advantage. So also could, and did, Dr. Franklin.

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cess ; and none of his associates recognised or appreciated the ardent and aspiring disposition, the intrepid and determined character, the vigorous capacity, the depth of genius, and the brilliant and commanding eloquence with which Henry was endowed. During the period of his second mercantile experiment, he had assiduously laboured to supply the deficiencies of his original education. The ancient classics engaged much of his attention, and Livy became his favourite author. The grandeur of the Roman character, delineated by the graceful pen of this writer, filled him with surprise and admiration : the vivid descriptions and eloquent harangues with which the work abounds, were perused by him with intense and oft-repeated delight ; nor could fortune have thrown in his way a book more fitted to cherish his republican spirit, and awaken that elevated strain of genius, discourse, and conduct which his career shortly after began to disclose. Having finally embraced the study of the law, he had been admitted to practice as a barrister about the time when the controversy between the clergy and the other inhabitants of Virginia commenced ;—and was now employed as advocate for the defendants in the first of the suits to which we have already adverted ; — probably, because no other lawyer could be found to defend so hopeless a proposition, as that the clergy were not entitled to be indemnified for the entire loss which they had incurred by the operation of a law declared to be unjust and void by the highest authority in the empire. To the surprise and admiration of all who heard and beheld him, Henry appeared on this occasion to cast off the vulgar vesture of his former character : his spirit, kindling with the greatness of the opportunity, seemed at once elevated in vigour and extended in range ; his genius broke out in all its lustre from the cloud that had obscured it ; and he stood forth, a new and superior being, in the eyes of his countrymen,—whose idol and champion, from this day, he became. The popular party, whose hopes had been extremely depressed, were transported with astonishment and delight : the clergy, who had manifested derision at the simple and faltering exordium of the orator, confounded by the rapid and overwhelming invective with which he assailed them, fled from the court with precipitation and dismay : while Henry pleaded the cause of his clients, and of the province, with ora-

tory so powerful,¹ and argument so congenial to the feelings of his audience, that, in defiance of all existing law, a verdict was returned by the jury awarding *one penny* as the damages due to the clergy. A new trial was instantly demanded on the part of the plaintiffs, thus inadequately and delusively compensated: but the minds of the judges themselves had been overborne by the torrent of Henry's oratory, and the accompanying flow of public feeling; and, amidst the loudest acclamations, they rejected the demand by a unanimous vote. The provincial assembly, shortly after, pledged itself to defend any appeal which the clergy might prosecute, and appropriated a portion of the public funds to this object: but the clergy submitted without farther struggle, and desisted entirely from a litigation in which they would have had to contend with the weight of the public purse, as well as the strong and swelling tide of public feeling. The triumph which Henry thus achieved for the popular party in Virginia, derived an additional significance from the nature of the topics which his discourse had embraced, and his manly and vigorous eloquence had discussed and illustrated. He insisted on the reciprocity of connexion and duties between the king and his subjects; from which he inferred that government was a conditional compact, composed of mutual and dependent covenants, of which a violation by one party implied the reciprocal discharge of the other; and intrepidly maintained that the disregard which had been shown, on the present occasion, to the public exigence of the colony, was *an instance of royal misrule which had so far dissolved the political compact*, and left the people at liberty to consult the general welfare by means which were

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¹ None of the reported speeches, or rather portions of speeches of this remarkable person, fully correspond with the idea of his genius impressed on us by the descriptions of his auditors and his biographer. The language of the eye, of the vocal tone, and of bodily gesture and action, in which he is said to have been pre-eminent, may be justly commended, but can never be adequately represented. In one sense, that speech is best, which is most suitable to the circumstances in which it is delivered. At a county meeting of English farmers, the shrewd, keen prate of a Cobbet would, doubtless, be far more efficacious than an oration of Pericles. I am constrained to yield to general testimony in favour of Henry's genius and oratorical powers; but must confess that I have never read any specimen of his eloquence which has not offended against my notions of good taste; and for the efficacy of which I have not been obliged to suppose some indescribable charm, and some peculiar and intimate correspondence between the sentiments of the speaker and his audience. Yet Jefferson, whose learning and genius were combined with sound judgment and refined taste, pronounced Henry "the greatest orator that ever lived."

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sufficiently sanctioned by the general approbation; that they had consulted it by the act of 1758, which, therefore, notwithstanding the dissent of the king and his council, ought to be considered as the law of the land, and the only legitimate measure of the claims of the clergy. From the nature of this topic, and the earnest and undaunted manner in which it was handled by the orator, we may infer that even at this era, so remarkably signalized by the attachment of the colonists to their parent state, *his* mind, at least, was disposed to scan with little reverence the past course of regal administration: while the reception which his argument obtained from the great majority of his countrymen, strongly attests that they also were deterred by no superstitious repugnance from the consideration of such topics, and were far from entertaining an invincible horror at the idea of separation from Great Britain.¹

Indian
War.

The hopes which the British colonists had entertained of an entire exemption from war, in consequence of the treaty of Paris, were interrupted, but a few months after the date of this treaty, by a furious and unexpected attack from the Indians. The conquest of the French settlements, which had been reckoned the pledge of an entire subjection of the Indian tribes to the English, was the immediate forerunner, and in a great measure the cause of this war—the most extensive, arduous, and destructive that was ever waged between these two races of people. We have already remarked the opinion which had been impressed on the savages, partly by the assurances of the French, and partly by their own observation and recollection of the course of events, that Britain would never entirely or at least permanently subdue the empire of France in America. When at length they witnessed the arrival of this catastrophe which they had deemed so improbable, they were struck with alarm (promoted if not inspired by French suggestion) at the vast and sudden increase of power and territory which Britain had acquired, and began to imagine that they ought to have made greater and earlier efforts to prevent the complete preponderance which she had obtained over her rival. Many of the Indian tribes had al-

¹ Wirt's Life of Henry.

ways been more jealous of the English than of the French, who seemed more intent on trade than on settlement, and who, conscious that they were inferior to their rivals in strength, supplied this defect by policy, and paid a much more flattering and systematical attention to the Indians than the English had ever done. Every little fort which, in the hands of the French, had been a mere military post and trading-house, now, in the occupation of the English, seemed the germ of a numerous and powerful community. The demeanour of the English towards the Indians was rendered more haughty and negligent by their recent victories and apparent security: in their occasional conferences with the sachems or chiefs, they began to omit the demonstrations of that ceremonious courtesy and civility which the savages highly valued and punctiliously paid and exacted: and some of the tribes no longer received the gifts which it had been customary, at particular periods, to present to them. In the year 1761, after the peace with the Cherokees, Sir William Johnson made an extensive tour among the Indian tribes, with the view of employing the influence and popularity which he possessed with them,¹ to quiet the jealousy which they were known to have conceived from the conquest of Canada, and which, it was reported that French emissaries were industriously fomenting: but his exertions were only partially successful. It was not always possible to discover the effect that had been really produced by negotiations with the Indians, who, cultivating secrecy, deception, and surprise as essential qualities of their military policy, were never more prone to profess contentment and friendly dispositions, than at the very moment when they cherished the most deadly rage, and harboured the most sanguinary projects. A conference was held, in the same year, between several of the American governors and the deputies

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¹ Johnson, without adopting Indian habits, gratified the savages by accommodating his manners to theirs. He even descended to imitate and retort their tricks and knavish manoeuvres: and the Indians were better pleased to have their ingenuity foiled in this manner, than to be addressed with the insolence of grave rebuke. A sachem who came to pay Johnson a visit announced one morning that he had dreamt, the preceding night, that his host had presented him with a rich suit of military apparel. Johnson, according to the Indian custom on such occasions, fulfilled the dream; but next morning related as a dream of his own, that his guest had presented him with a valuable tract of land. The Indian regarding him with a sly look, replied, "The land is yours; but let us dream no more."—Dwight's Travels.

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of the Six Nations, for the purpose of ratifying former treaties, and with the hope of conciliating thoroughly and fixing the friendship of these confederated tribes. At this conference, a warm dispute arose on account of certain lands which a chief of the Delaware tribe, allied to the Six Nations, complained that some English settler had usurped in consequence of a fraudulent conveyance. Though a seeming accommodation of the dispute was effected at the time, yet was it justly apprehended from various symptoms in the conduct of the Indians, that their minds were not satisfied, and that they secretly nourished more resentment than they chose openly to avow. Meanwhile new causes of offence continued to present themselves to men inflamed with jealousy and predisposed to quarrel. The King of Britain had issued a proclamation confining all future purchases of lands from the Indians to certain royal commissioners charged with the administration of Indian affairs. This proceeding, which was probably intended to render the growth of the colonies tributary to the royal revenue, as well as to obviate the frequent causes of quarrel supplied by the transactions of private adventurers with the Indians, obtained very little regard in America. Perhaps the only method by which the more equitable and pacific of its purposes could have been accomplished, would have been to commit the absolute and exclusive power of treating with the Indians for additional lands, to the assembly of each respective province. Purchases of land continued to be made by private individuals: and the Indians, sometimes the dupes of their own rashness and the knavery of their customers in these transactions, invariably dissipated the price of their alienated lands in excesses of debauchery and riot, which were followed by the most stinging sensations of rage, remorse, and mortification. Unhappily in the midst of these ferments, and aided by their influence, a report was circulated among the Indians that the English had formed a scheme for their entire extirpation. This report, though totally destitute of foundation,¹ obtained

¹ The only circumstance with which I am acquainted, correspondent even in the slightest degree with this report, is the protestation uttered, about six or seven years before, by some exasperated fanatics in Pennsylvania, that the extirpation of the Indians was a sacrifice due to the glory of God and the security of the christian colonists of America. See Appendix III. *post*.

general credit, and concurring with the other causes of sus-
picion and irritation, united a powerful confederacy of In-
dian tribes in the purpose of revenging their past wrongs,
and defeating, by anticipating, the supposed impending
blow.

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The Indians inhabiting the shores of the Ohio, and especially the Shawanese and Delawares, took the lead in this enterprise; and having engaged the tribes in the vicinity of Detroit, the greater number of the tribes on the same side of the Mississippi, and the Senecas, one of the tribes of the Six Nations, to co-operate in their design, they determined to make a sudden, general, and simultaneous assault on the British frontiers. By the indefatigable exertions of Sir William Johnson, the other tribes of the Six Nations were restrained, though with great difficulty, from plunging into this hostile enterprise, which seemed the last effort of the Indian race to hold at least divided empire with the European colonists of America. The Cherokees also, faithful to their late treaty of peace, abstained from interposition in the war. It was the purpose of the allied and hostile Indians, in order to destroy at one blow both the colonists and their means of subsistence, that the work of destruction should commence in the season of harvest of the present year. Their plan of operation was concerted and matured with consummate craft, and secrecy. At the appointed time, a furious incursion was made upon the provinces of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. The precipitancy of some of the Indian warriors defeated in part the more methodical and considerate mischief of the rest, and communicating an earlier alarm than had been intended, enabled a number of the colonists to escape with their effects. Great numbers, however, were massacred, and their dwellings and other property desolated with all the circumstances of horror and cruelty attending Indian warfare. In the general alarm and consternation created by this fierce and unexpected attack, the frontiers of the three provinces by which it was sustained, were immediately deserted to the extent of twenty miles inwards; and multitudes of flourishing settlements, the fruit of many years of hard labour, were abandoned to hostile rage and spoil. The itinerant merchants, at the same time, who, on the security of the general peace, had repaired to

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trade in the Indian country, were all murdered, and their effects, to the value of several hundred thousand pounds, made the prey of the savages. All the great trading towns in America were sufferers from this blow. But what, in a military view, was regarded as of much greater significance, was the capture by the Indians of the forts Le Bœuf, Venango, and Presque Isle. These places derived their importance rather from local position than from their fortifications, which were feeble and incomplete. Situated to the southward of Lake Erie, they commanded the heads of all the navigable rivers in this region, and were subservient, indeed absolutely requisite, to the communication between Pittsburg, the lakes, and the northern garrisons. Inconsiderable in point of strength, as the captured forts were, the Indians would probably have failed to reduce them, without the aid of fraud and stratagem in addition to the influence of surprise created by sudden and unforeseen assault. Whenever they invested any of them, they assured the garrison that they had reduced all the others : intimidated them by menaces of the danger of withstanding the strength and provoking the vengeance of the additional multitudes of Indians whose near approach they announced ; and upon promises of safety, which they commonly violated, induced them to abandon their post. By the same artifices, and with similar perfidy, they obtained possession of some other smaller fortresses, and especially of Michillimakinac, the remotest of all the forts that had been erected by the French and annexed to the British dominions by the conquest of Canada. There still remained, however, three fortresses, considerable alike by their strength and the commanding influence of their position, which it was necessary for the Indians to subdue, before they could expect any permanent advantage from their successes. These were Detroit, between the Lakes Huron and Erie ; Niagara, between the Lakes Erie and Ontario ; and Pittsburg, which overawed the regions and tribes adjacent to the Ohio. The Indians were sensible that while these fortresses continued to exist, the most important links of the chain with which they were now encompassed by the British dominion, remained unbroken ; and against them, accordingly, they reiterated all their exertions of force and policy. Though the theatre of this Indian war

was of prodigious extent, and the various belligerent tribes widely disjoined, yet they preserved in their operations an amazing degree of harmony and concert. Detroit and Pittsburg, though so remote from each other, were invested almost at the same moment. The consummate address which the Indians displayed on this occasion, was supported by a proportionate degree of courage, determination, and perseverance: nor ever did the Indian race approve itself a more stubborn and formidable enemy, than in this final stand against the encroachment of European dominion and civility in America.

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General Amherst, sensible of the danger with which his recent conquests were menaced by the explosion of this alarming war, hastily detached a numerous body of his troops to the succour of the western garrisons. Captain Dalzell, who conducted the detachment intended to reinforce the garrison of Detroit, after he had safely performed this duty,¹ was deluded, by erroneous information, into the hope that he could surprise the Indian army, which was posted at the distance of three miles from the fort, and attacking it, under the cover of darkness, inflict a blow that would terminate the war in this quarter. With this view, between two and three o'clock of the morning, he set out from the fort, in quest of the Indian camp, at the head of two hundred and seventy men, having previously adopted the most judicious precautions for the secrecy and orderly disposition of the march, and (which was equally necessary in American campaigns) for preventing wounded soldiers from falling into the hands of a barbarous foe. But he had undervalued the vigilance and penetration of the Indians, who, perhaps, also derived some advantage from a friendly intelligence with the French settlers in the vicinity. Apprised of his design, they securely prepared to defeat it; and every step of his march from the fort only conducted him farther into the jaws of their dexterous ambuscade. The advance of his troops was suddenly arrested by a sharp fire in their front, which was presently followed by a similar discharge upon their rear, and then succeeded by a confounding and destructive volley from every side. It was

¹ July 29th.

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1763. fatally manifest to the British that they were surprised by the enemy, whom they had themselves rashly undertaken to surprise; and this was all that they could discover, for, in the darkness, neither the position, nor the numbers of the Indians could be ascertained. Dalzell fell in the beginning of the affair, and his whole troop were on the brink of irreparable confusion and ruin, when Captain Grant, on whom the command now devolved, perceiving that a safe retreat, his only resource, could not be accomplished without a previous attack upon the enemy, promptly rallied the soldiers, who, steadily and resolutely obeying his orders, charged the Indians with so much spirit and success, as to repulse them on all sides, to some distance. Having thus extricated themselves from immediate peril, the British hastily regained the shelter of the fort, with the loss of seventy men killed, and forty wounded. The issue of this unfortunate affair, which deterred them from undertaking any farther offensive operations, was not yet of sufficient importance to encourage their enemies to pursue the siege of a fort so strong, and now supplied with a garrison and with provisions fully adequate to its defence. After pausing, only long enough to ascertain that the garrison were completely on their guard against stratagem and surprise, the Indians abruptly broke up their camp, and abandoned the vicinity of Detroit.

Pittsburg, meanwhile, was so closely beleaguered on every side, that its communication with the country was completely suspended. Its Indian besiegers supplied, in some measure, their want of skill and of artillery, by the daring and obstinate valour of their assault. Regardless of danger, and exerting a resolution which the most accomplished veterans in European discipline could not have surpassed, they took post on the brink of the river, close to the fort, and shrouding themselves in holes which they dug, for several days together, poured in upon it an incessant storm of musketry, and of arrows tipped with fire. The scantiness of the garrison, and the meagreness of its stores, rendered the place very ill qualified to support a siege; but its defence was prolonged by the skill and spirit of the commander, Captain Ecuyer, and his troops, who, though perfectly conscious of the difficulty of maintaining the place,

were still more strongly impressed with the disgrace and danger of surrendering to a savage and faithless foe.

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Amherst was well acquainted with the importance of Pittsburg; and judging that the principal efforts of the Indians would be directed against this fortress, he had despatched for its relief a large quantity of military stores and provisions, under the protection of a powerful escort commanded by Colonel Bouquet. This officer conducted his troops and the convoy to the remotest limits of the British settlements, without being able to obtain the slightest intelligence of the state of the garrison, or of the numbers, position, or proceedings of the enemy. In this uncertainty, he prudently determined to disengage himself from all the ammunition and provisions by which his march was loaded, except what he judged to be indispensably requisite to the object of his enterprise. Thus disencumbered, the English troops entered a rough and mountainous country, and soon drew nigh to a formidable defile called Turtle Creek, extending several miles in length, and commanded on both sides by steep and craggy hills. Bouquet now proposed, after refreshing his forces, to attempt the passage of this defile during the night, in the hope of eluding the observation of the Indians,—who proved, however, to be nearer and more alert than he imagined. Their vigilance had been so much superior to his, or at least so much more successfully exerted, that they had obtained early intelligence of his expedition: and judging it impossible to subdue Pittsburg either before or after the arrival of the approaching reinforcement, they prepared to intercept it. Suspending the siege, they occupied a position from which the advance of Bouquet might be opposed, and his forces attacked with advantage. Could they have foreseen the intention of the commander, and been induced to defer an engagement till after the commencement of the nocturnal march which he proposed, when darkness would have co-operated with the perplexity of the defile, to promote the influence of surprise, and to spread among the British a confusion favourable to the irregular and disorderly style of Indian attack, the forces of Bouquet would probably have fallen an easy prey to the valour and good fortune of the savages. But, whether transported with the hope that their position rendered victory certain, or prompted by the more

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prudent impulse to attack the British before they had leisure to repose from the fatigues of a march of seventeen miles, they waited only till Bouquet's troops had begun to make preparation for their refreshment; and then, about one o'clock of the afternoon,¹ commenced a sudden and furious assault on his advanced guard. All the advantages of this attack, however, proved inferior to the efficacy of order, steadiness, and discipline, exerted with the full assistance of day-light. So firmly was the charge of the Indians sustained, that they were quickly put to flight, and even pursued to a considerable distance. Yet so far were they from abandoning the hope of victory, that in the very moment when the pursuit ended, they returned with redoubled fury to renew the engagement. Several other parties of their forces, which had hitherto lain in ambush on the adjacent heights, now sprang up from their concealment, and, aiding the efforts, as well as emulating the resolution, of their companions, assailed the British with a galling and obstinate fire. To dislodge these assailants from their elevated position, it was necessary to make a charge with the whole line; but though this operation succeeded, it produced no decisive advantage. The Indians had previously ascertained all the military capabilities of the neighbouring country; and no sooner were they driven from one position, than their flight appeared to have been but a rapid movement to gain another not less commanding. The concerted plan which they pursued, was developed by the increased strength and more formidable attitude which they progressively derived from the constant flow of reinforcements corresponding to every change of the ground they occupied. At length, in consequence of all these successive operations, the English troops were completely surrounded by the enemy, and at the same time withdrawn to a considerable distance from the convoy, which another party of the Indians now attempted to carry by a fierce assault. The main body of the troops were consequently obliged to fall back in order to prevent the convoy from being lost; and by dint of address and resolution, in spite of every impediment, this movement was seasonably and successfully performed. But though the hard contested

¹ August 5th.

prize was thus snatched from their grasp, the Indians were neither depressed nor intimidated. With undiminished spirit and inveteracy, they pressed their attacks on every side; and the conflict, instead of relaxing, became, every moment, more warm and general. During the whole of this arduous struggle, the English troops were never thrown into the slightest disorder. By their firm discipline and calm deliberate courage, they finally maintained the field, and with fixed bayonets repulsed the enemy at every point. The action lasted seven hours, and ended only with the close of day. Happily for the English, the scene of their last struggle, from which it was impossible for them to withdraw, afforded some convenience for an encampment. The convoy and the wounded were placed in the centre, surrounded and guarded by the effective troops. In this posture, and with little repose, the English passed an anxious night; obliged to the strictest vigilance by the vicinity of a subtle and enterprising foe, who completely encompassed their position.

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At the first dawn of morning,¹ the Indians began to approach the English camp. On all sides they presented themselves at the same moment, and simultaneously raised the most horrible yells; hoping by this ostentation of their numbers and fury, to impress a terror that would facilitate their victory. This signal was followed by a series of attacks, conducted with the same mixture of cautious address and ferocious activity which had characterized the conflict of the preceding day. The English, enfeebled as they were by their prior exertions, and the anxieties of a sleepless night, were additionally distressed by a total want of water, and a consequent thirst more intolerable than the fire of the enemy. In its commencement, the action resembled the former one. The Indians made the most desperate efforts to penetrate the centre of the camp: and though constantly repulsed, as constantly resumed their attack, without relaxation or dismay. The English, vainly victorious, continually in danger, enfeebled by successes which obviously produced no decisive influence on the fortune of the day, nor impaired in the slightest degree the spirit and alacrity of the foe, were forced to con-

¹ August 6th.

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template the melancholy prospect of crumbling away by degrees, till the diminution of their numbers and exhaustion of their strength, should deliver up the survivors of them to the inglorious yoke of savage bondage, or the terrific cruelty of savage torture. Confined to their convoy, they durst not lose sight of it for a moment, without exposing this interesting object, together with all their wounded men, to the pillage and fury of the Indians. Many of the horses were killed or disabled ; and numbers of the drivers, stupified with fear, hid themselves in the neighbouring thickets, and were incapable of hearing or obeying orders. To advance, or retreat, was equally impracticable for the British troops. The fate which overtook Braddock's army seemed to impend over them ; and this dismal catastrophe was averted only by the ability of their commander. Sensible that he could not extricate himself from his dangerous predicament, without bringing the Indians to abide the issue of a close, general, and sustained encounter ; and remarking the increased temerity and audacity with which the success of their manœuvres had latterly inspired them,—Bouquet directed a considerable portion of his troops to perform a movement which would ultimately enable them to attack with great advantage, provided the seeming indication of flight which it presented, should tempt the enemy to a bolder and more continuous advance. The rest of his troops, meanwhile, by their evolutions seemed to be endeavouring to cover the flight, and supply the loss of the supposed fugitives. Deceived by appearances so congenial to their wishes, and transported with eagerness to reap the fruit of their efforts and expectations, the Indians now discarded the prudent and cautious policy which they had hitherto pursued, and yielded to all their fury. They no longer receded from the first resistance to their attack ; but, pressing on, in a flame of rage and anticipated triumph, exposed themselves to the full effect of the superior skill and vigour of the English ; and were overthrown with prodigious slaughter and irreparable rout. This repulse was rendered the more decisive by the fall of a number of the bravest and ablest of the Indian chiefs, who had distinguished themselves by the bitterness of their animosity against the English, and exerting their address while it seemed necessary, had reserved

their active prowess for the moment of victory, which they prematurely supposed to have arrived, and rashly attempted to accelerate. In their fall, was extinguished no mean part of the fuel of the war. The victory was dearly bought by the English, who, besides fifty men killed,¹ were encumbered with such a multitude of wounded, and deprived of so many of their horses at the very time when additional means of conveyance were most urgently requisite, that they were reluctantly compelled to destroy the greatest part of their convoy of provisions, and so far defeat the principal object of their expedition. They had advanced hardly two miles beyond the scene of their late conflicts, when, to their extreme surprise and distress, their encampment was again beset by the enemy: but this renewed attack was slight and transient; and the Indians, who seemed rather to remember, than to retain the power of executing, the counsels of their fallen chiefs, retired after a slight skirmish, and offered no farther opposition to the advance of the British, who, four days after, arrived at Pittsburg. In spite of the sacrifices which had attended their march, this important post was, from the moment of their arrival, freed from all farther attempts and menaces of the enemy.

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Though the projects of the hostile Indians received a signal check, and their hopes a grievous disappointment, from the relief of Detroit and Pittsburg, they were not discouraged from making farther efforts in a different quarter. They now bent their main force against Niagara, which they justly esteemed a post not less important than either of the others: and, in addition to every other art of annoyance which they were capable of exerting they hoped, as a last expedient, to reduce it by famine. Their design was favoured by the vast distance by which all these posts were separated from each other, and from the population of the provincial settlements. With the same vigilance and alertness which had characterized their previous operations, the Indians now descried from afar, and watched the motions of every convoy despatched to Niagara: and on the 14th of September, surrounding one which had nearly gained the place of its destination, they

¹ See Note IX. at the end of the volume.

BOOK succeeded in making it their prey, by a sudden attack, in
 X. which seventy of the British soldiers were slain. Shortly
 1763. afterwards, as a British schooner was crossing Lake Erie,
 with provisions for Detroit, she was attacked by a numerous
 fleet of canoes, on board of which were nearly four hundred
 Indians. But this attempt was less successful: and after a
 hot engagement, the Indian armada was repulsed with con-
 siderable loss. In a conflict with an armed vessel, the savages
 were exposed to the same disadvantages which attended their
 operations against fortified places on shore.

By the exertions of the British, the garrisons of the three
 great western forts which had been thus besieged, were at
 length so powerfully reinforced and so well supplied with
 stores and provisions, that the Indians, abandoning all hope
 of reducing them, confined themselves to their wonted style
 of predatory hostility, and ravaged by furious incursions the
 frontier settlements of the southern provinces. As they
 seemed determined to prolong the war, though its chief pur-
 pose had manifestly failed, the British government judged it
 proper to require the colonists to lend the aid of their arms to
 the regular troops who had hitherto borne the whole brunt of
 1764. it. In the commencement of the following year, the states of
 New England were specially invited by letters from Lord
 Halifax, one of the secretaries of state, and from General Gage
 who had now succeeded to the command of Amherst, to raise
 a force that should co-operate with the English troops and the
 levies supplied by the southern colonies, in an invasion of the
 territory of the hostile Indians. This application was received
 with much impatience and aversion. The people of New
 England were far remote from the sphere and interest of the
 existing war, and plainly showed their disinclination to in-
 crease the burdens with which their exertions in the last con-
 test with France had loaded them, in order to combat the
 Indian enemies of other states from which, New England, in
 her own similar exigencies, had never obtained or solicited
 assistance. The assembly of Massachusetts availed itself of
 a report or probability of the near termination of the war, to
 evade either compliance with the proposition or a direct refu-
 sal. Connecticut was more pliant. Its assembly, though
 with undisguised reluctance, resolved, that, in conformity with

their duty to promote the king's service, and in order to manifest their obedience to his will, a battalion of two hundred and fifty men should be raised, and conducted by Colonel Putnam to whatever part of North America, the commander-in-chief should direct. So little advantage had the royal prerogative obtained in Massachusetts from the tyrannical invasion of the privilege of electing their own governor, which originally belonged to the people of this province, and, without any just or equitable distinction, was still retained by the inhabitants of Connecticut.

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Reinforced by the Connecticut battalion, and by some detachments from the militia of the southern colonies, the British troops, commanded by Colonels Bouquet and Bradstreet, attacked the enemy with such spirit and success during the spring and summer, that the vanquished savages at length evinced a sincere desire for peace, and proposed, in Indian phrase, to *bury the hatchet*. In September, there was concluded a treaty of peace, of which the conditions, dictated by the English, were more consonant to the spirit of victors, than to the principles of equity. By the articles of this treaty, it was provided that, within twenty days after the ratification of it, the Indians should deliver up all the prisoners in their hands;¹ that they should renounce all claim to the forts which the English then possessed in their country; that the English should have liberty to build as many more as they might deem requisite to the security of their trade; and that the Indians should cede to them for ever all the surrounding land within the range of cannon-shot from each respective fort. It was also stipulated that if any Indian should kill an Englishman, he was to be delivered up by his tribe to be judged by the English laws, and that half of the jury on his trial should consist of Indians; and that if any of the Indian tribes should renew the war, the rest were to aid the efforts of the English, to produce an accommodation. It has been reproachfully remarked by the upright and sensible historian of Connecticut, that this treaty expressed no reciprocal conces-

¹ Many of the Indians were struck with the deepest anguish, and wept bitterly when they were compelled to surrender the white children whom they had kidnapped, and for whom they had conceived a remarkable warmth and tenderness of affection. An interesting account of their demeanour on this occasion is preserved in the Annual Register for 1765.

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sions on the part of the English. No engagement was contracted by them to deliver up to public justice the English murderers of Indians; nor was any valuable consideration stipulated for those territorial appendages which the Indians were obliged to cede to them around not only every fort which they then possessed, but every other which they might think proper subsequently to erect. This last observation conveys a far severer censure than a reasonable consideration of the former can be allowed to imply. It was not inconsistent with a just respect for the rights of human nature, that Britain should consult the safety of her people by requiring that their murderers should abide the issue of that fair transcript of natural law which her judicial system discloses in the trial and punishment of murder: and the interest of the accused was amply protected by that provision for the composition of his jury, which rendered it necessary that his guilt should be ascertained by the concurrent sentence of his own countrymen. But it would have been utterly inconsistent with British honour, real humanity, and christian sentiment, to have surrendered an Englishman charged with murdering an Indian, or with any other crime, to the uncertain inquisition of savage jurisprudence, or the infliction of that barbarous revenge which coincided with Indian ideas of justice and propriety. In all the American provinces at this time, the murder either of a white man or an Indian, was a capital crime. It must indeed be confessed that the equality of this legal provision was in practice generally disturbed and defeated by the violent prejudices and resentments with which the colonists were transported by their experience of Indian perfidy and cruelty. It was so difficult, at this time, as to be accounted impossible, even in New England and Pennsylvania, to induce a provincial jury to deliver up one of their countrymen to the executioner for the slaughter of an Indian: and the provincial governments were sometimes obliged by presents to soothe the rage of Indian tribes, to whom the inefficient theory of British justice was unable to afford more honourable satisfaction.¹

Affairs of
Pennsyl-
vania.

A remarkable transaction occurred this year in Pennsylvania, where the disputes between the proprietaries and the

¹ Annual Register for 1763 and 1764. Trumbull. Hutchinson. Franklin's Memoirs. Belknap. Minot.

assembly which had so long agitated the province, and at last had been seemingly composed, were suddenly renewed with more violence than ever. The proprietaries were discontented with the concessions which the people had obtained from them, and never ceased to cherish the hope of again resuming that pretension, which we have seen them unwillingly relinquish, of exempting their own estates from the provincial taxation. It was, doubtless, with the view of promoting this and other kindred purposes, that, in the year 1763, the government of the province was withdrawn from the hands of James Hamilton, and conferred on John Penn, whose father, Richard, was one of the proprietaries. This new governor's assumption of his office, was the signal for the re-commencement of former disagreements and controversies. The assembly having passed a militia bill in the same year, he refused his assent to it, without the introduction of certain amendments, which consisted in transferring the nomination of the officers from the people, who had hitherto exercised it, to himself; in increasing all the pecuniary fines by which neglect of musters and of other military duty was punished; and substituting, in some cases, the punishment of *death* in place of fine. These amendments were resisted by the assembly as inconsistent with the spirit of liberty: but the governor was obstinate in preferring the authority of himself and his family, to the public will: and, as neither party would yield, the bill was lost. Other occurrences of a similar character, contributed to widen the breach between the proprietaries and the assembly, and to increase the regret with which many of the inhabitants, and even the quakers, had seen and acknowledged of late that the executive government was not sufficiently strong to enforce the provisions of law, and the dictates of justice and humanity; to defend either the safety of the state against foreign hostility, or its honour and character against the internal ebullition of popular prejudice, rage, and violence.¹ The assembly were at length so highly exasperated against the proprietaries, that, in the present year, they resolved to present a petition to the king, imploring a change of the political constitution of Pennsylvania, correspondent to the innovation

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¹ See *post*, Append. III.

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1764. which the crown had formerly sanctioned in the instance of Carolina:¹—the substitution of a *regal* in place of a *proprietary* government. This proceeding which, if not originally suggested, was warmly supported by Dr. Franklin, occasioned a violent ferment in the province, where many good men, though opposed to the unjust and insolent pretensions of the proprietaries, were shocked at the idea of a revolution so dishonourable to the memory and the family of that illustrious man to whom Pennsylvania owed its foundation and its name. The defenders of the measure, themselves, endeavoured to propitiate the public reverence for the name of William Penn; and justified their desires, by appealing to the conduct of this patriarch himself, who, they observed, had been prevented only by sickness and death from completing the transaction which he had commenced for a surrender of his proprietary functions to the crown.² Amidst the collision and confusion of political sentiment which ensued, the proprietaries gained the advantage of alienating so many of the citizens of Philadelphia from their former regard for Franklin, that at the election which followed in the autumn of this year, he was deprived of the seat which, as their representative, he had held, for fourteen years, in the provincial assembly. But the delusiveness of this triumph appeared, when the assembly, at its first meeting after the election, espoused the petition which had been previously voted, and entrusted to Franklin the duty of conveying it, and the honour of again representing the province, as its agent at London. This appointment, which was suggested not less by Franklin's character, and former success in advocating the interests of his countrymen, than by the peculiarity of his present situation, which precluded him from lending his support to their cause in the assembly,—was farther recommended by the influence and consideration which he appeared to possess at the British court. In the preceding year, his natural son, William Franklin, whether as a tribute to the father's merit and fame, or in recompense of his own valour, which had been honourably displayed during the last war with France, had obtained the powerful recommendation of Lord Bute to the appoint-

¹ *Ante*, Book VIII. chap. ii.² *Ante*, Book VII. chap. ii.

ment of governor of New Jersey,¹ which was accordingly bestowed upon him. By the exertion of Governor Penn, and the interest of the proprietaries, the embassy of Franklin from Pennsylvania to England, was opposed in the assembly with a violence, which, though unsuccessful, appears to have strongly affected the feelings of Franklin, and given him a painful foretaste of that sacrifice of private friendship, which every man who takes an active part in civil broils, must either inflict or incur, and, at all events, should firmly prepare himself to undergo.² Of his present mission, the immediate object proved indeed unsuccessful. The petition of the Pennsylvanian assembly to the throne, was rejected; and the proprietary government allowed to remain unchanged.³ But Franklin's sojourn in Europe, proved far longer and more interesting than he had expected; and this, his second mission, as the representative of a portion of his countrymen, was attended with consequences more profoundly and diffusively important to America, than either its promoters or opponents had anticipated.

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¹ The salary of this office at that time was 1,000*l.* a-year.—Burnaby's Travels.

² In one of the political compositions published by Franklin at this period, he expresses a deep and manly, but not repentant sorrow for the hostility which he had provoked from men (says he), "the very ashes of whose former friendship I revere."—" *Esto perpetua*," he adds, with votive benediction of Pennsylvania and its social system:—a wish more propitious to human happiness than that of *Father Paul*, of Venice, from whom the expression is derived.

³ Proud. S. Smith. Franklin's Memoirs.

APPENDIX III.

APPENDIX III.

Condition of the North American States—Virginia—New England—Maryland—the Carolinas—New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania—Georgia.—Political feelings and ideas in Britain and America.—Benjamin West.—Indian Affairs.—Moravian Missions.

AT this interesting epoch, we may, with propriety, pause a while, to survey some particulars of the condition of the North American states,—supplemental to the views occasionally disclosed from various points of our progress along the main stream of events. Though, from the defect of materials, our survey must be far less minute and extended, than its importance deserves, yet, by collecting the scattered rays, which may be extracted from various existing sources of information, some additional light can be thrown on the state of society in America, at the present period, when a signal crisis in her fortune had occurred, and a grander and more important crisis in her fortune and constitution was at hand.

The war, which issued in the triumphs we have witnessed over the French, the Spaniards, and the Indians, exercised during its continuance, a mischievous influence on the population and prosperity of the American provinces,—which, however, the vigour and virtue of their excellent constitutions, aided by the happy result of the contest, enabled them very speedily to surmount. In the commencement of the war, the successes of the French, and the ferocious ravages of the Indians, tended to repress the flow of emigration from Europe to America; and, during the whole of its continuance, the sacrifice of life and resources, yielded to military exigence, and inflicted by hostile rage, diminished the means and the activity of domestic increase. But the progressive growth of America, though impeded, was by no means arrested during this war. In every instance in which materials for judgment can be obtained, we find the various states more wealthy and

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Condition
of the
North
American
States —

APP. III. populous at the peace of Paris, than at the preceding period
 of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1764.
 Virginia, — From Virginia, in the year 1758, there were exported seventy thousand hogsheads of tobacco,—“ the largest quantity of this produce (says Jefferson) ever exported from the colony in a single year.”¹ The population of this province is said to have amounted, in 1763, to 170,000 persons, of whom 100,000 were slaves.² Burnaby, an English gentleman and scholar, who visited the North American states in 1759 and 1760, and afterwards published an account of his travels, remarks that the progress of art and science had been very feeble and scanty in Virginia, where the college of William and Mary was yet the only established seminary of education, and had by no means fulfilled the designs of its founders. This writer has expressed his conviction that no considerable turn would arise in Virginia for some centuries.³ The following description of the state of society in this province has been transmitted by an intelligent person, who was one of its inhabitants at the present period. From the character of the author (Wirt), by whom it has been approved and preserved, there is reason to believe it substantially just ; but it is probably overcharged, as general descriptions of human character and manners commonly are.—“ In a country insulated from the European world, insulated from its sister colonies with whom there was scarcely any intercourse, little visited by foreigners, and having little matter to act upon within itself,—certain families had risen to splendour by wealth, and by the preservation of it from generation to generation, under the law of entails ; and some of these had produced a series of men of talents. Families, in general, had remained stationary on the grounds of their forefathers, for there as no emigration to the westward in those days : the Irish, who had gotten possession of the valley between the Blue Ridge and the North Mountain, formed a barrier over which none ventured to leap ; and

¹ Notes on Virginia. The average export was 55,000 hogsheads of 1,000 lb. each.

² Warden. This computation, though adopted by several writers, is probably too low. President Adams, in his *Twenty-six Letters on important Subjects*, asserts that Virginia, in 1764, contained 200,000 inhabitants.

³ Burnaby's Travels in the middle settlements of North America. Burnaby states that there were few dissenters of any denomination in Virginia. But this is quite erroneous,—and strangely so, from a man who passed ten months in the province.

their manners presented no attraction to the lowlanders to settle among them. In such a state of things, scarcely admitting any change of station, society settled itself down into several *strata*, separated by no marked lines, but shading off imperceptibly from top to bottom, nothing disturbing the order of their repose. There were, then,—first, aristocrats, composed of the great landholders, who had seated themselves below tide-water on the main rivers, and lived in a style of luxury and extravagance insupportable by the other inhabitants, and which, indeed, ended, in several instances, in the ruin of their own fortunes. Next to these were what might be called *half-breeds*, the descendants of the younger sons and daughters of the aristocrats, who inherited the pride of their ancestors, without their wealth. Then came the pretenders, men who, from vanity, or the impulse of growing wealth, or from that enterprise which is natural to talents, sought to detach themselves from the plebeian ranks, to which they properly belonged, and imitated, at some distance, the manners and habits of the great. Next to these, were a solid and independent yeomanry, looking askance at those above, yet not venturing to jostle them. And last and lowest, a *feculum* of beings, called overseers, the most abject, degraded, unprincipled race; the flatterers of the great who employed them, and furnishing materials for the exercise of their pride, insolence, and spirit of domination.”¹ The duties of these last-mentioned persons, as the title by which they are distinguished imports, had relation to the management of that class of inhabitants, far more numerous than all the others, but of whose situation no notice has been preserved—the negro slaves. A dismal conjecture of the real condition of this unhappy race, necessarily arises from the character ascribed to those men to whom the power of aggravating or mitigating their bondage was entrusted. To the class of Virginian yeomanry, belonged Patrick Henry, whose sudden and remarkable rise above the political horizon has already demanded our notice. Improving, with equal ability and success, the first happy fruits of his genius and fortune, Henry advanced with rapid strides to an acknowledged pre-eminence over all

APP. III.

1764.

¹ Wirt's Life of Henry.

APP. III. his contemporaries in Virginia, except Washington, whose character and capacity were of an entirely different description. And yet Virginia, at this period, was graced with the talents of Jefferson, the Randolphs, the Lees, and many other able, accomplished, and enterprising men. Henry's elevation, feebly obstructed for a while by the envy which mingled with the astonishment of the higher classes of Virginian society, was warmly seconded by the awakened spirit and energy of that class to which he peculiarly belonged,—to whose interests he devoted himself with unshaken fidelity and exhaustless zeal; and which, regarding him as its especial property, recognised its own triumph in the advancement of its favourite and champion. His invariable declaration, as a politician, was, that he *bowed to the majesty of the people*; and, while he illustrated this profession by the whole strain of his brilliant career, he exercised a powerful influence on the destiny of his countrymen, and was carried aloft, in the sequel, by the fervour of their admiration, and their eagerness to assert their own republican majesty, to the highest pinnacle of official grandeur and distinction in Virginia.¹

New Eng-
land,—

Massachusetts is said to have contained in the year 1763, a population of 241,000 persons,—of whom 5200 were slaves; Connecticut, 145,500,—of whom 4500 were slaves; and Rhode Island, upwards of 40,000,—of whom 4600 were slaves. The population of New Hampshire, at this period, has not been distinctly noted; but in the year 1767, it is said to have amounted to 52,700 persons.² Of the population of Maine, no notice has been transmitted. These numbers are, doubtless, too low; and more credit is due to the computation of Dr. Stiles, who assigns to the whole of New

¹ Wirt's Life of Henry. The utility, though not the agreeableness, of the moral lesson which Henry's history is fitted to convey, is increased by the recollection that, in the close of his life, even his great and well-deserved popularity was eclipsed, in consequence of his conscientious dissent, on a political question, from the majority of that people whose independence and glory he had signally contributed to promote. Such instances of the fleeting tenure of mortal favour, while they damp the ardour of the selfish and splenetic, refine the motives and elevate the views of the upright and disinterested professors of patriotism. If Henry at all deserved his final loss of popularity, it was by occasionally stooping to arts, not base indeed, but very undignified, of augmenting it. He is said to have on many occasions affected a gross vulgarity of language and pronunciation, in order to gratify the vanity of the coarsest and most ignorant part of the provincial population.

² Warden. Holmes.

England, at the present period, a population of upwards of 500,000 souls.¹ The states of New England were more eager to increase their population than to publish the details of its progressive growth. In the year 1763, the British ministers, who were intent upon schemes of rendering the resources of America directly tributary to the revenue of the parent state, instructed the governor of Massachusetts to obtain for them a more exact census than had ever yet been taken of the number of inhabitants of this province. In compliance with their wish, the governor proposed to the assembly to enact a law requiring every parish and district to ascertain and report the amount of its population. But this measure was opposed with strong manifestations both of patriotic jealousy and of puritan prejudice. Many persons entertained a suspicion (which the frame of their temper would have led them to infer from slighter grounds) that some dangerous purpose of British tyranny and encroachment, was couched under the proceeding: and not a few opposed it with religious scruples, and assimilated it to King David's unhallowed and calamitous policy in *numbering the people of Israel*. After being postponed from session to session, the proposed law was at length reluctantly passed by a majority of the assembly;² and executed, most probably, with little diligence or exactness.

This was not the only recent instance of the traces that yet lingered in popular usage and sentiment, and even in the provincial jurisprudence, of that strong puritan leaven which had been originally imported into New England. Symptoms of the austere and rigid spirit of the first puritan colonists broke forth occasionally during this century, in proceedings that remind us of the primitive statutes against finery of apparel, and long or elaborately curled hair. The government of Connecticut occasionally issued orders for reviving a strict execution of ancient laws against tale-bearing, tavern-haunting, idleness, and "the unseasonable assemblies of young people." We have formerly remarked³ a law by which, in the year 1646, the legislature of Massachusetts denounced the punishment of flogging against any man bestowing the salute of a kiss on a woman in the streets. A curious instance

¹ Stiles, *apud* Holmes.

² Hutchinson.

³ *Ante*, Book II. chap. ii.

APP. III. has been related of the execution of this law, more than a century after its enactment. We are informed by Burnaby, the traveller, that shortly before his visit to America (which took place in 1759), the captain of a British man-of-war which was stationed off the coast of Massachusetts for the protection of its trade during the last war with France, happened to return from a cruise, on a Sunday, to Boston, where he had left his wife. Learning his arrival, this lady rushed down to the harbour to meet him; and, in a transport of joy, they could not refrain from tenderly embracing each other in the open street. For this breach of the laws, and desecration of the Sabbath, the captain was summoned to appear before the magistrates, who, after a grave rebuke, sentenced him to be publicly flogged. The punishment is said to have inferred no ignominy whatever: and after having undergone it, he was freely admitted into the best company of the place, and even into the society of the magistrates, who so little guessed the resentment which he nourished within his bosom, as to accept an invitation to an entertainment on board of his vessel, on the day when she was to leave the station and sail for England. After regaling them with a handsome feast, he caused his sailors to flog them all on the deck of the vessel, in sight of the town; and then, telling them that he and they had now cleared all accounts, he dismissed them and set sail. This story (somewhat varied) appeared in the English newspapers at the time. Burnaby declares that he was assured of the truth of it, by the most respectable inhabitants of Boston.¹ Probably, the strictness and even severity of manners, prescribed by the laws of Massachusetts and Connecticut, contributed, with the heavy taxes occasioned by their military exertions, to those frequent emigrations which now began to take place from their territories to Nova Scotia, New York, and others of the British colonies.

The conquest of the French dominions, and the reduction of the hostile Indians, which communicated a new energy to the principle of increase in all the British colonies, was beneficial, in an especial degree, to New England. In New Hampshire, more particularly, this advantage was speedily

¹ Burnaby.

and strikingly apparent. For many years, the frontiers of this province had been, with little intermission, a scene of suffering and danger from the incursions of the Indian allies of France. At the conclusion of the war, many of the inhabitants of New Hampshire were enabled to return from savage captivity, to their homes; and friends who had long been separated were restored to each other's society. The general joy was heightened by the consideration that Canada would no longer be a source of terror and distress. Relieved from this scourge, New Hampshire began to expand with happy vigour in the extension of settlements and the multiplication of its people. From the peace of Paris, may be dated the flourishing state of this province; which, till then, had been circumscribed and stinted in its growth by the continual pressure of danger from a savage enemy. The frontiers of New Hampshire were rapidly peopled and extended both by internal increase, and by copious emigration from the other states of New England: and the territory, in particular, subsequently distinguished by the name of Vermont, and whose original cultivation we have already remarked, began to fill apace with inhabitants. Proportioned to its replenishment, unfortunately, was the warmth of the controversy, in which New Hampshire and New York urged their rival pretensions to the government of this territory. The colonists of Vermont, who would probably have submitted with little opposition to the jurisdiction of New York, were provoked to the most violent and determined resistance of this pretension by the claims for heavy fines and quit-rents which were blended with it. Encouraged by two leaders of ardent and daring spirit, Ethan Allen and Seth Warner, both natives of Connecticut, a numerous body of the colonists with arms in their hands, rejected the mandates and defied the menaces of the government of New York: and though the assembly of this province denounced Allen and Warner as outlaws, its efforts were unavailing to carry the sentence into effect, or to overcome the opposition which these adventurers promoted. The controversy was conducted with a virulence unfriendly to civilization and humanity: but it proved eventually serviceable in a high degree to the political interests of America, by

APP. III.
1764.

APP. III. educating a prompt and vigorous spirit of self-defence among the growing population of Vermont.¹

1764.

A passion for occupying new lands rose to an amazing height, in New Hampshire, and in every other quarter of New England :² and the gratification of this taste fostered a stubborn resolution and habits of daring and hardy enterprise, congenial to the prevalent sentiments of independence, and propitious to the efforts which these sentiments portended. Among other new settlements created by the exuberant vigour of New England at this period, was one whose primitive manners and happiness, as well as the miserable desolation which it subsequently underwent in the war of independence, have been rescued from neglect and oblivion by the genius of a poet of Scotland,—the settlement of Wyoming on the banks of the river Susquehannah. The territory of this settlement had been purchased, several years before, by an association of Connecticut planters, from the Indian confederacy of the Six Nations : but first, the war with France, and afterwards, the war with the Indians, deterred the resort of inhabitants to this region till the year 1763, when it was first colonized by emigrants from Connecticut. The social union of various races of men, and the conversion of martial heroes into patriarchs and husbandmen, so beautifully described by Campbell, in his *Gertrude of Wyoming*, is rendered probable by the increased resort which now took place of emigrants to America from every quarter of Europe, including a considerable number of British officers, who, deprived of their occupation by the peace, and smitten with the charms of rural life in America, transferred their residence to a land to which their victorious heroism had imparted additional value and security. This settlement, like the occupation of the Vermont territory, gave rise to a controversy on which poetry has no colours to bestow. A keen litigation for the dominion of it,

¹ When the king's attorney at New York urged Ethan Allen to abandon his opposition to the pretensions of this province, reminding him that *might commonly prevails over right*, Allen coolly replied, "The gods of the valleys are not gods of the hills." Allen was at the head of a numerous and determined body of hardy planters, who were called "The Green Mountain Boys," from a range of hills within the territory which they inhabited. The name Vermont is derived from a translation into French of the name of these hills.

² Belknap. Williams' Hist. of Vermont. Ira Allen's Hist. of Vermont.

arose between the government of Connecticut to which it APP. III.
properly belonged, and the proprietaries of Pennsylvania, who
derived a plausible claim from the vagueness of their charter, 1764.
and who, like the royal governors of New York and New
Hampshire, were eager to augment their emoluments by multiplying the occasions of exacting fees for grants of land, to which the grantees had, by previous purchase from the natural owners, already a much more equitable title than those pretenders to sovereignty were able to confer.¹

Shortly after the conquest of Canada, there was discovered at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence a valuable whale fishery which had been unknown to the French. Its resources were made tributary to the people of New England with such prompt and progressive vigour of appropriation, that in the year 1761 ten New England ships, and in 1763, no fewer than eighty were profitably employed in this adventure.²

In New England, at this period, there were at least five hundred and thirty congregational churches; besides the ecclesiastical associations which were framed upon the model of the church of England and had of late years considerably extended their influence in all the states.³ Much genuine piety still survived in New England: and this noble principle would probably have obtained both a wider range and a more lasting empire, if the antiquated institutions of puritanism had been sooner and more fully surrendered to the changes which the innovating current of time had accomplished in the general sentiment and opinion. But, laws enacted by the fathers of New England, and consecrated by long respect, were more easily defended by a few zealous partizans than repealed by the indifference or dislike of a more numerous but disunited portion of the community. The professors of puritan principles in New England, had been always the staunchest advocates of provincial liberty: and, perhaps, their favourite policy of blending religious with political ordinances was now, rather prudentially supported than sincerely espoused by the strong and rising party which regarded every object as of secondary importance in comparison with the exaltation of popular power, and the

¹ Trumbull.² Ann. Reg. for 1764.³ Holmes

APP. III. promotion of American independence. Such circumstances
 1764. could not fail to engender consequences the most pernicious to the purity of christian doctrine and the warmth and sincerity of christian sentiment. Laws and usages, substantially condemned by the sentiments of a great majority of the social community, but sustained by the honest conviction of a few admirers, and the acquiescence of indifferent or interested supporters, could produce only grimace and formality; and infallibly tended to a general dereliction of that system of christian piety which human weakness sought to incorporate with the mouldering fabric of its own fleeting institutions.

No fewer than five printing presses were at this time maintained in constant employment at Boston. Within the limits of the Old Plymouth territory which was now annexed to this province, there still remained upwards of nine hundred Indians. In the island of Nantucket, about three hundred and fifty of this race were still to be found. In Duke's county, in the same province, there remained about three hundred Indians: and at Natick, only thirty-seven of the Indian inhabitants survived. Nearly one thousand Indians continued to occupy lands within the territory of Connecticut.¹ In the months of September and October 1760, more than one hundred bears were killed in one district of the county of Hampshire in Massachusetts.² The manufacture of sugar and molasses from the juice of the maple-tree, was first introduced into New England in the year 1765.³

Mary- Of the population and condition of Maryland at this period
 land,— no memorial has been preserved. The proprietary authority still subsisted in the family of Lord Baltimore: and though it was not exercised with that sordid and illiberal policy which provoked so much dislike against the kindred institution in Pennsylvania, it seems to have been regarded with little respect or affection. We have formerly remarked⁴ a law of this province by which the importation of felons from the parent state was prohibited. But either this law had been subsequently repealed, or, more probably, it had fallen into desuetude: for

¹ Universal Hist. Holmes.

³ Ann. Reg. for 1765.

² Ann. Reg. for 1760.

⁴ *Ante*, Book III.

in the chronicles of English judicial transactions, Maryland APP. III.
is more frequently particularized than any of the other colonies
as the scene to which felons were conveyed. Four years after
the present epoch, the proprietary himself was in some danger
of being included in the annual cargo of convicts from Eng-
land, and compelled to reside as an exiled felon in the country
where he possessed the prerogative of a feudal sovereign.
Frederick Calvert Lord Baltimore, the unworthy descendant
of the first proprietaries of Maryland, was an accomplished
scholar and wit,¹ but an utter stranger to piety, morality, and
decency. He openly professed a systematic and exclusive
devotion to voluptuous pleasure, and a contempt for all
restraints except the penal laws of human society: and yet
these laws which he alone regarded, had nearly inflicted on
him a doom equally unjust and ignominious. A consequence,
by no means extraordinary, of one of the profligate amours
which he indulged, was a false charge of rape, on which he
was capitally tried at the assizes for the English county of
Surrey in the year 1768. He was acquitted after a very long
trial, in the course of which, though he denied the particular
guilt imputed to him, he openly admitted his general liber-
tinism, in a speech more remarkable for its elegance than its
modesty. It is impossible to doubt that the character and
conduct of this nobleman, whom the people of Maryland were
compelled to recognise as their proprietary sovereign, produced
on their minds an impression very remote from respect for the
institutions and supremacy of the parent state. The title which
Lord Baltimore thus disgraced, became extinct at his own
death, which occurred at Naples in the year 1771. He be-
queathed his rights over the province of Maryland to his natural
son, Henry Harford, who was then a child at school, and whom
the subsequent rupture between Britain and America, pre-
vented from ever deriving any advantage from the bequest.²

North Carolina, in the year 1763, is said to have contained
about ninety-five thousand white inhabitants. The contentment
and prosperity of the inhabitants of this province had suffered a
much greater abatement from the extortion and injustice prac-
the Caro-
linas, —

¹ He published "A Tour to the East in 1763-4," and some other literary com-
positions of slender merit and little note.

² Ann. Reg. for 1768 and for 1771.

APP. III. 1764. tised by governor Dobbs, and other administrators of British authority, than from their share, comparatively a small one, of the calamities of the late Indian wars. Amidst a great deal of genuine American virtue and happiness, North Carolina contained a more numerous body of indigent and discontented freemen, than existed in any or perhaps all of the other British settlements. Education was generally neglected: the laws and the executive officers enjoyed little influence or respect; and it was difficult among this people to recover payment of debts, or to obtain satisfaction for injuries.¹

South Carolina which had continued to advance in growth notwithstanding the pressure of the war, reaped an ample and immediate share of the advantages resulting from the peace of Paris. In consequence of an act of its assembly which appropriated a large fund to the payment of bounties to industrious labourers from Great Britain and Ireland, and to all foreign protestants resorting to the province within three years and forming settlements in the interior, vast numbers of emigrants from Germany, England, Scotland, and especially Ireland, eagerly embraced the prospect and became citizens of the new world in South Carolina. In 1765, the province contained 130,000 inhabitants, of whom 90,000 were slaves. Most of the free inhabitants were in easy circumstances; and some instances were not wanting of great accumulations of wealth. "It has been remarked," says the historian Hewit, at this period, "that there are more persons possessed of between five and ten thousand pounds sterling, in South Carolina, than are to be found any where else among the same number of people. In point of rank, all men regard their neighbours as their equals, and a noble spirit of benevolence pervades the society." The planters were generally distinguished by their hospitable dispositions, their sociable manners, and the luxurious cheer of their tables. Almost every family kept a one-horse chaise; and some maintained the most splendid equipages that Britain could furnish. All the new literary publications in London, were regularly transmitted to this province. Hunting and horse-racing were favourite amusements of the men. Assemblies, concerts, balls, and

¹ Williamson. Holmes.

plays were common. "It is acknowledged by all," says APP. III. Hewit, "but especially by strangers, that the ladies in this province considerably outshine the men.¹ They are not only sensible, discreet, and virtuous, but also adorned with most of those polite and elegant accomplishments becoming their sex." 1764. A wasteful and slovenly system of husbandry prevailed throughout all South Carolina.²

From the year 1756, when the state of New York, as we have seen, contained about 97,000 white inhabitants, no notice occurs of its population till the year 1771, when the number of white inhabitants is said to have amounted to upwards of 148,000.³ The advance of population in this province was repressed by the monopoly which a few wealthy planters had obtained of vast tracts of land; which reduced many emigrants to the necessity of becoming tenants instead of proprietors, and prompted many more to abandon their original purpose of settling in New York, and extend their migration to other provinces where land could be obtained on more favourable terms. No credible statement has been made of the population of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, or Georgia, at this epoch, nor at any subsequent period prior to the American Revolution. They had all, doubtless, considerably enlarged their growth, which now advanced with an amazing increase of vigour from the security afforded by the treaty of Paris, and the augmented flow of emigration from every part of Europe. In the year 1760, the quakers formed about a fifth part of the population of Pennsylvania.⁴ The inhabitants of the town of New York at this period, are described as almost wholly engrossed with mercantile pursuits, from which they sought a relaxation in gay, expensive, and ostentatious festivity,—little conscious or heedful, in general, of any value that was not demonstrable by ledgers, or recognised in commercial transactions,—and far inferior in refinement of taste, elevation of sentiment, and extent of knowledge to the citizens of Philadelphia. An injurious influence was,

¹ This praise was justified in a very remarkable manner in the year 1780, when the courageous patriotism and inflexible fortitude of the women of South Carolina restored the expiring cause of liberty in the province.

² Warden. Hewit.

³ Ramsay's Hist. of the American Revolution.

⁴ Burnaby.

APP. III. 1764. doubtless, exerted on the manners and habits of society in New York, by the numbers of adventurers whose residence in the place was merely temporary, and who resorted to it for the purpose of accumulating fortunes with which they hoped to purchase pleasure or distinction in the metropolitan cities of Europe.¹ Yet some learned and accomplished men were produced in New York, and found a kindred spirit and willing associate in Colden, for many years the lieutenant-governor of the province, who was an elegant scholar and philosopher and devoted his leisure from official duty to the pursuits of literature with enterprising vigour and distinguished success.² In the year 1758, a course of academic tuition was commenced in a college at New York, for which a charter and a grant of money had been obtained from the crown four years before. In 1759, a donation of 500*l.* was made to this institution by the society established in Britain for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts: and in 1764, more than 10,000*l.* was collected by subscription in England for the benefit of the colleges of New York and Philadelphia.³ Belcher, the governor of New Jersey, dying in 1757, was succeeded in the following year by Francis Bernard, whom we have seen removed to the government of Massachusetts in 1760, when he was replaced in New Jersey by Thomas Boone. In 1761, Josiah Hardy succeeded to Boone, who was advanced to the government of South Carolina; and in 1763, Hardy was replaced by William Franklin, a natural son of Dr. Benjamin Franklin.⁴ We have remarked the assumption of the government of Pennsylvania in 1763, by John Penn, son of one of the proprietaries. He retained this office till 1771, when he was superseded by his brother Richard: but on the death of their father in the same year, John, who then became himself a proprietary, again assumed the government of the province.⁵

Georgia. In none of the British colonies, were the advantages atten-

¹ Galt's Life of West. Grant's Memoirs of an American Lady.

² Colden is most generally known by his excellent "History of the Five Nations." He was also the author of a treatise entitled "Explication of the first Causes of Action in Matter, and of the Causes of Gravitation," published at New York in 1745.

³ Winterbotham. Miller's Retrospect of the Eighteenth Century. Ann. Reg. for 1759 and for 1764.

⁴ S. Smith.

⁵ Proud.

dant on the treaty of Paris more speedily apparent, than in Georgia. This young provincial community, destitute of commercial credit, and greatly exposed to hostile molestation, had hitherto evinced but a feeble and languid progress; but from this period, it advanced with sudden and surprising rapidity in wealth and population. The British merchants, considering the colony securely established and likely to attain a flourishing estate, were no longer backward in extending credit to its planters; and freely supplied them with negroes, and with the produce of the manufactures of Britain. But the colony was mainly indebted for the sudden growth which it now began to experience, to its governor Sir James Wright, who was endowed with wisdom to discern, and resolution to pursue the most effectual means for its improvement. In addition to the attractions presented by the liberal and benevolent strain of his administration, he discovered and demonstrated the fertility of the low lands and river swamps,—by the judicious management and culture of which he acquired a plentiful fortune; and his successful example at once aroused the emulation of the planters, and prompted the resort of enterprising strangers. Many new plantations were formed both by retired British officers, and by Carolinians, about Sunbury, and on the river Alatamaha. Stokes, an English lawyer who resided a considerable time in Georgia, declares that under the administration of Wright, “this province made such a rapid progress in population, agriculture, and commerce, as no other country ever equalled in so short a time.” The rapidity of its progress is strikingly demonstrated by a comparison of the present state of its exports, with the amount which, ten years after, they attained. In 1763, the exports of Georgia consisted of 7,500 barrels of rice, 9,633 lbs. of Indigo, and 1,250 bushels of Indian corn, which, together with silk,¹ deer and beaver skins, naval stores, provisions, and timber, amounted in value to 27,021*l.* sterling: while in 1773, the province exported staple commodities to the value of 124,677*l.* sterling. Among other emigrants who formed a valuable accession to the population of Georgia about this period, were a number of quakers, who, under the conduct of

APP. III.

1764.

¹ In 1759, upwards of 10,000 lbs. weight of raw silk was lodged at Savannah for exportation. Holmes.

APP. III. Joseph Mattock, a public-spirited member of this religious society, founded a settlement about thirty miles from Augusta, to which in honour of the governor who actively promoted its establishment, they gave the name of Wrightsborough. Mattock was acknowledged the chief magistrate of this settlement; and continued to preside over it, with patriarchal grace, till a very advanced age.¹

1764.

Political
feelings
and ideas
in Britain
and Ame-
rica.

Burnaby, who was accustomed to the grandeur and comfort of England, remarks that all the elegant, and even the luxurious fruits of wealth, were displayed in the American provinces. In the houses of some of the inhabitants of New Jersey, he found specimens of the works of the great painters of Europe. In a journey of twelve hundred miles through America, this traveller did not meet a single individual who solicited alms from him. He declares that the people in most of the states which he visited, were strongly imbued with sentiments of independence; and that it was a frequent remark with them, that *the tide of dominion was running westward, and that America was destined to be the mistress of the world.*² So much jealousy, however, he observes, so much dissimilarity, and mutual contrariety and alienation prevailed between the people of the different states, that a permanent union of their strength and councils appeared to him utterly impossible.³

The disunion between the different provincial communities, appears to have been a favourite consideration with those English politicians who were apprehensive of American independence. They knew that the natural progress of society in America was towards independence, and that the prevalent sentiments of many of the colonists tended to accelerate the attainment of this interesting epoch in their national existence: but they hoped that it would yet be long retarded, partly by British policy, and partly by the absence of united counsel and fellow-feeling between the colonial communities. Unhappily for their wishes, British policy was destined to operate very differently, and not only to stimulate the Ame-

¹ Hewitt. Stokes' Constitutions of the British Colonies. Morse's American Gazetteer. Bartram's Travels.

² See Note X. at the end of the volume.

³ Burnaby.

ricans to an earlier assumption of independence, by rendering it more than ever desirable to them, but to facilitate its attainment by creating among them a union cemented by the strongest sense of common interest and danger. An English writer of considerable sagacity, in a political treatise which he published in the year 1764, endeavoured to combat the fears of American revolt entertained by his countrymen. "If the British constitution," says the writer, "should corrupt and fall to ruin, as all others have done, it will be a blessing to mankind, that its colonies, its children grown to maturity, should not be involved in the same destruction, but inherit by succession the blessings of liberty. *There is nothing but common and imminent danger, or violent oppression can make them unite.*"¹ Almost all the political reasoners in Great Britain seem to have completely overlooked this obvious and forcible consideration,—that the same jealous spirit of independence which ordinarily served to disunite the American provinces, would operate as a principle of union against any danger or encroachment common to the liberties of the whole. Yet, all the statesmen of the mother country were not equally blind. Before the conclusion of the late war, the celebrated English lawyer Pratt, afterwards Lord Camden, remarked to Dr. Franklin, "For all that you Americans say of your loyalty, I know you will one day throw off your dependence upon this country; and notwithstanding your boasted affection for it, will set up for independence." Franklin answered, "No such idea is entertained in the minds of the Americans; and no such idea will ever enter their heads, unless you grossly abuse them." "Very true:" replied Pratt,—"that is one of the main causes which, I see, will happen, and will produce the event."²

We have remarked³ the various schemes of policy with regard to America, which were entertained by the British cabinet after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. None of these schemes, except that of subjecting America to direct taxation by the British parliament, was even at the time decisively renounced. The design of taxation which we have seen rejected with prophetic warning of its impolicy by Sir Robert Walpole,

¹ Farmer's View of the Policy of Great Britain, &c.

² Gordon.

³ *Ante*, Book X. chap. ii.

APP. III. was first embraced, and then, on farther consideration, abandoned by Pelham, whose conduct, in this instance, was imitated by Pitt. Shortly after Pitt's accession to power, it was signified to Dr. Franklin that this minister was disgusted with the dilatory manner in which troops and money were raised for the public service in America, and especially in the proprietary jurisdictions; that if he should continue one of the ministry at the close of the war, he would take measures to deprive the colonies of the power of thus retarding the necessary supplies; and that if he should previously leave the cabinet, he would transmit the same purpose as a monitory bequest to his successors. The measures which Pitt contemplated, were not then specified: but in the close of the year 1759, in a letter which he had occasion to write to Francis Fauquier the lieutenant-governor of Virginia, he intimated that when the war was over, a direct revenue to Britain must be drawn from America by parliamentary taxation.¹ Fauquier, in reply, expressed his apprehension that this novel proceeding would excite much disgust and disturbance in the colonies:—a suggestion, which, enforced by his own farther consideration of the subject, seems to have diverted Pitt from his dangerous purpose. Schemes of alterations in the constitutions of the American states, implying an enlargement of the power of the crown and of the influence of the church of England, were continually broached and entertained in the British cabinet. The English bishops incessantly pressed upon the ministry, the adoption of Bishop Butler's scheme of introducing an episcopal hierarchy into America: and though the ministry were unable to devise any means of surmounting the difficulties by which this proposition had been formerly defeated, they hearkened to every suggestion relative to it, and pursued a policy which seems to have been intended to pave the way for its adoption. It was customary to acquaint the officers of the crown in America with so much of the policy of the cabinet as was necessary to direct their conduct into a suitable conformity with it, through the medium of

¹ That Pitt had wisely chosen the correspondent to whom he imparted this project, appears both from the soundness of the advice which he received, and from the representation which Jefferson has transmitted of Fauquier, whom he characterises as "the ablest man who had ever filled the office of governor of Virginia."—Jefferson's Memoirs.

despatches which bore the title of royal instructions. Every APP. III.
governor nominated by the king, received a mandate of this description at his appointment : and if his command were long
1764.
continued, his instructions were renewed and varied, in correspondence with the fluctuations of policy, and the course of events. The instructions communicated to Benning Wentworth, governor of New Hampshire, in 1761, after prohibiting him from assenting to any law calculated to obstruct the importation of negro slaves into the province, commanded that " No schoolmaster from England shall be henceforth permitted to settle in the province, unless he produce the license of a bishop ; and no other person now there, or that shall come from other parts, shall be permitted to keep school without your license first obtained." In the year 1762, an act was passed by the assembly of Massachusetts for incorporating a number of pious individuals in an association, of which the purpose is expressed in the title accorded by the act, of *The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge among the Indians in North America* : but in the following year, this act was rescinded by the king and privy council, in compliance with the remonstrances of the Archbishop of Canterbury and a party of the English clergy, who insisted that it would be prejudicial to the interests and authority of the church of England. These measures (of which all the springs were ascertained and disclosed by the activity of the provincial agents at London, aided by the good offices of Pownall) were highly disagreeable and irritating to the colonists ; and that they failed to excite some violent commotion, chiefly arose from the notorious impossibility of carrying them into full execution. The purpose of their promoters was rendered far more apparent and odious, than effectual. Wentworth durst not deprive any popular and meritorious schoolmaster of his vocation ; and men sincerely devoted to the purpose of evangelizing the Indians, were not to be deterred from it by the denial of a statute of incorporation. Much uneasiness was created about this time among the colonists, by reports that agents in the employ of the British ministry had been travelling in the provinces since the year 1762, for the purpose of ascertaining by personal survey, what alterations of the provincial institutions were

APP. III. most practicable and most likely to be conducive to the interests
 1764. of British dominion; and of gaining, by tempting offers, the assent of leading men in America to the introduction of such measures.¹ From the view which we have already obtained of the state of political sentiment in America at this era,² it is impossible to doubt that from these reports there must have resulted an injury to the influence of British authority on the great mass of the people of America, feebly, if at all counterbalanced by the increased animation which the most adroit conduct of such missions could impart to the zeal of that small class of the colonial population who longed for the advancement of British prerogative, and for a concomitant augmentation of their own splendour and dignity. A strong sensation was excited in New Hampshire, and thence propagated in other quarters of America, by the remarkable valedictory warning addressed in the present year to the congregational ministers of Portsmouth in that colony, by George Whitefield the methodist. "I can't in conscience leave this town," he declared, "without acquainting you with a secret. My heart bleeds for America. O poor New England! There is a deep-laid plot against your civil and religious liberties; and they will be lost. Your golden days are at an end. You have nothing but trouble before you. My information comes from the best authority in Great Britain. I was allowed to speak of the affair in general, but enjoined not to mention particulars. Your liberties will be lost." Probably the mysterious terms of this communication added not a little to its efficacy.

To the combined influence of these various circumstances, we must, doubtless, ascribe that impatient dislike and jealousy of episcopal power and its encroachments which the bulk of the people in New England cherished at this period, and which blazed forth a few months after in a controversy so violent as to astonish all those who had not remarked the silent but rapid pace of sentiment and opinion. An insignifi-

¹ Gordon gives the following specimen of the letters of introduction which these persons were enabled to present to Americans who were accounted friendly to the interests of British prerogative:—"This is a gentleman employed by the Earl of Bute to travel the country, and learn what may be proper to be done in the grand plan of reforming the American governments."

² *Ante*, Book X. chap. v. and vi.

cant dispute between some clergymen of different persuasions APP. III.
 served to kindle this controversy, in which the comparative
 merits, theoretical and historical of the church of England and
 the protestant dissenting churches, were discussed by their
 respective partizans with a heat of temper and vehemence of
 animosity which infected and agitated the spirits of a great
 portion of the inhabitants of British America. The defenders
 of the American churches excelled their adversaries in contro-
 versial vigour and ability, without excelling them in candour,
 meekness, or courtesy.¹ The church of England was re-
 proached with the persecutions which had driven the puritans
 to America; while the puritan churches, on the other hand,
 were assailed with the sharpest invectives on account of the
 intolerance which they had displayed in their infancy, and the
 persecution which they had incited or sanctioned against the
 quakers. Both parties supported their charges and recrimi-
 nations with so many historical allusions as plainly to demon-
 strate with how much industry, but how little of real benefit,
 the lessons of history had been studied by either; and how
 exclusively the attention of each had been attracted by the
 circumstances and details favourable to its own prepossessions.
 Though political topics were but sparingly introduced into
 this controversy, political affections and interests were from
 the first enlisted in support of the pleas maintained by the
 champions of either side,—who desisted not from their argumen-
 tative warfare till it had regenerated to a considerable extent
 the flame of those passions which formerly contributed to
 separate the American portion from the European mass of the
 population of the British empire.²

In the conduct of the late war, or at least in its closing
 scenes, the colonists had derived the most signal advantage
 from the operations of the armies despatched from Britain to
 America: and yet, the intercourse between these troops and
 the provincials, was attended with many unhappy conse-

¹ “In the literary compositions of both parties sharp expressions and personal invective were employed, under protestations of candour and good will, which gave too great a complexion of cant and insincerity to the debates of the times in general. These writings may be considered as increasing the divisions which were rising in New England, as in a point whence, with diverging influence, they were about to spread over the American and European world.”—Minot.

² Franklin’s Correspondence. Ann. Reg. for 1765. Gordon. Minot.

APP. III. quences to their respective countries. At first, the absurd enforcement, which we have remarked, of insolent regulations, arrogating to the British a superiority which their exertions in the field were far from supporting, excited general disgust and resentment in America. Even when the relaxation of this foolish policy, and a series of victories propitious to the interests of the colonies, had contributed to gild the character of the British troops, they never became popular with the mass of the American people. They introduced infidel sentiments, licentious manners, and loathsome diseases, which had been hitherto almost entirely unknown in this quarter of the empire. Many of the British officers were infidels,—a class of persons, who, despite their usual protestations to the contrary, are by no means insensible to the desire of making proselytes; and additionally characterized by licentious conduct, unhappily allied with elegant and engaging manners. Of the provincial officers whom the war rendered familiar associates of these men, few had ever heard the divine origin of the Scriptures questioned, or were provided with answers to the cavils of even the shallowest sophistry; and many, from the same ardour of disposition which had urged them to the field, were much more prone on all occasions to decide with promptitude than to investigate with cautious deliberation. A considerable number of the American officers were initiated into the vices of their companions in arms; and having once imbibed a taste for licentious indulgence, soon experienced the attraction of those libertine principles which assisted to silence the reproaches of conscience. The peasantry, in general, regarded the British troops with an aversion justified by their original conduct, and unaltered by their subsequent successes against the common enemy: and, of the richer colonists, many paid dearly for the attentions which they lavished on the British officers, in the corruption of their own manners, and the exaggerated representations of their wealth and luxury which were transmitted to Britain. American hospitality, stimulated to the highest pitch, by the presence, the rank, and the services of so many British visitors, overflowed in ostentatious excesses, of which the real character was concealed by the pride and politeness of the entertainers, and the ignorance of their guests. The provincial families which were most distinguished by their

hospitality to the British officers, customarily embellished APP. III.
 their festivities by borrowing each other's gold and silver plate; 1764.
 and were afterwards highly incensed at the effect of this artifice of vanity, when they found that their guests had been not only completely deluded by it, but prompted to circulate, in England, such accounts of the wealth of the Americans, as inspired the English with the hope of drawing from so copious a mine some alleviation of the pressure of their national debt.¹ To the Americans, it seemed the height of insolence and ingratitude, that their munificent hospitality should be acknowledged and celebrated by the objects of it, only as an additional reason for aggravating the burdens with which they were already loaded. While the inhabitants of the parent state were cherishing the delusive expectations of shifting from themselves to their colonies, the burden of their financial embarrassments, the colonial governments were labouring assiduously to extirpate the foolish and pernicious habits which had contributed to the production of that erroneous idea. In the year 1761, an address of the assembly to the governor of Pennsylvania, deplored the prevalence of "all sorts of luxurious and vicious public diversions," and entreated his assistance "to preserve the character which this province has hitherto borne, of a sober, sedate, industrious, frugal, and religious people." A more energetic effort to attain the same end, was made, in the year 1765, by the province of Connecticut, where an ancient ordinance of New England was revived, for the appointment of *overseers* to guard the interests and restrain the expenses of fools and prodigals.²

In the year 1760, was published the first volume of Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts. The second volume, which carried forward the provincial history till 1749, was not published till several years afterwards; and the third not till many years after the author's death. It is a work of great industry and ability, but written in a harsh, ungraceful style. Many judicious remarks and ingenious reflections of this author, lose half their force from the indistinct terms and dis-

¹ Grant's Memoirs of an American Lady. Belknap. Gordon. Franklin's Memoirs and Correspondence. Dwight's Travels.

² Ann. Reg. for 1761 and for 1765. The process adopted in New England strongly resembles the ancient Scottish formula of *Interdiction*.

APP. III. proportioned strain of the language in which they are expressed.
 1764. The third volume, in addition to this defect, is pervaded by a disagreeable vein of personal ostentation and political partiality, and is not more advantageous to Hutchinson's reputation as a writer, than the scenes which it describes were to his character as a politician.¹

In 1761, there was a transit of the planet Venus over the sun's disk: and as Newfoundland was the most westerly part of the earth whence the conclusion of the transit could be observed, it was generally desired by the astronomers of the age that some scientific observation should be made from that spot. Professor Winthrop of Harvard College, whose eminence as an astronomer we have already remarked, undertook and ably performed this duty. The expenses of his voyage and operations were defrayed by the General Court of Massachusetts.²

Benjamin
West.

A few years before the present period, Benjamin West, a young Pennsylvanian quaker, excited some perplexity among the members of his religious society by the indication he gave of genius and taste for painting. The exercise of this art was disallowed, as a frivolous and useless pursuit, by the tenets of the quakers, which, however, were relaxed in his favour, in consequence of the speech of John Williamson, a quaker inhabitant of Pennsylvania, at a meeting of the society which was held for the purpose of considering this subject, and regulating young West's destination. "It is true," said Williamson, "that our tenets deny the utility of that art to mankind. But God has bestowed on this youth a genius for the art; and can we believe that Omniscience bestows his gifts but for great purposes? What God has given, who shall dare to throw away? Let us not estimate Almighty wisdom by our notions,—let us not presume to arraign His judgment by our ignorance; but, in the evident propensity of the young man, be assured that we see an impulse of the

¹ In vain we seek in the pages of Hutchinson for the decent composure, the calm majestic survey, becoming an historian. His genius seems to have received a mean bias, from long and inveterate devotion to the interests of a party, and from his evil fortune in reaping from his labours a plentiful harvest of popular dislike. It seems as if he neither felt cordial sympathy with, nor expected it from the mass of mankind.

² Eliot's New England Biography. This work, to which I have had frequent occasion to refer, is a most instructive, impartial, and interesting performance.

Divine hand operating towards some high and beneficent end." The quakers, in accordance with the views of this speaker, permitted West to follow the impulse of his taste; charging him at the same time to redeem the art of painting from the discredit which it had incurred from ignoble applications; and praying that the Lord might verify, in his life, the utility of the gift which had induced them, in despite of their sectarian tenets, to allow him to cultivate the faculties of his genius and follow the peculiar bent of his disposition. West repaired to Rome in the year 1760; and afterwards settling in England, became the greatest painter of the age.¹ Some of the most remarkable scenes of American history have been illustrated and perpetuated by his genius. America has since been deprived of the presence of several distinguished native painters, who, attracted by the patronage and munificence of the princes and nobles of Europe, have forsaken a land, where the more equal division of wealth leaves little superfluity for the pecuniary recompense of the fine arts. The residence in America of the painters whom she may hereafter produce, must be expected, from a more elevated and patriotic spirit among the artists, and the progress of cultivated taste among their countrymen.² Painters have not been the only eminent natives of America who have exercised their genius and achieved their fame in Europe. The celebrated Benjamin Thomson was born in the state of Massachusetts, in the year 1752. Embracing the cause of the parent state, in the war of independence, he received the rank of knighthood from the British king. His philosophic and philanthropic labours subsequently gained him, from the Elector of Bavaria, the title, by which he is commonly known, of Count Rumford.

A remarkable change had been introduced, of late years, Indian affairs. into the system of political intercourse between the British colonists and the Indians. Originally it had been the practice for each state to treat separately with the tribes adjacent to its own territory and settlements. But the mischiefs attendant on this practice at length compelled the various

¹ Galt's Life of West. This distinguished man is said to have received some pictorial tuition in his youth from certain members of an Indian tribe.—Lives of Painters.

² See Note XI. at the end of the volume.

APP. III. provincial governments to observe more concert and union in
1764. their negotiations and arrangements with the savages. It sometimes happened that one province, without any direct quarrel between its white inhabitants and the Indians, was prompted to engage in war with this people in defence of some neighbouring colony; and nothing was more common with the savages, than to revenge upon one provincial community the affronts which they had received from another. They regarded all the white men who professed allegiance to the same king, as substantially the same people, and justly responsible for each other's actions. Before the close of the last century, we have seen treaties concluded with the Indians, by conventions of the governors of several of the British provinces. But, from the disunion and mutual jealousy which subsisted between the respective provinces, as well as from the dissensions which prevailed between many of the provincial assemblies and their governors, this improved diplomatic system was by no means advanced to the perfection of which it was capable. The failure of the project which was agitated in 1754, of a resident general government in America, empowered to make requisitions of the resources of all the provinces for the common defence, probably suggested to the British court the measure which was soon after embraced, of vesting the entire management of Indian affairs in the crown: and the great influence which Sir William Johnson had acquired with the aboriginal people, recommended him to the office, then first introduced, of royal superintendent of Indians affairs in the whole of the British colonial dominion. To the superintendent and a board of commissioners appointed by the crown, was committed the exclusive privilege of making treaties with the savage tribes, and on those officers there was subsequently bestowed by a royal proclamation issued shortly after the peace of Paris, the exclusive right of purchasing from the Indians any lands not already acquired and appropriated by the colonists. This important measure, by which the crown assumed to itself the control so long possessed by the respective provincial governments over the enlargement of their settlements, seems to have excited little or no jealousy in the colonies; partly because from the short period which elapsed between its an-

nouncement and the rupture between Britain and America, APP. III.
 sufficient time was not afforded to adopt the necessary arrangements for carrying it into entire and effective operation; and partly because, as the crown now undertook the expense of the periodical presents to the friendly tribes, the provincial assemblies were sensible at first of no other result from the new scheme of British policy, than the relief which they obtained from a very heavy burden.

 1764.

After the conclusion of the war with the Cherokees, a deputation of Cherokee sachems or chiefs, was conducted at the expense of the crown to England, in the year 1762. These savage deputies were presented at court with all the formalities appropriated to the reception of ambassadors from independent states,¹ and were entertained with the display of whatever was thought likely to impress them with a high idea of British power and grandeur. Yet, that the Indians were regarded by their civilized entertainers, as in reality a subordinate and inferior race, may perhaps be inferred from the fact that on the dresses with which they were furnished in order to qualify them for their appearance at court, the arms of the British crown were emblazoned. An odious and more significant testimony of the denegation of social equality to this race was afforded about two years after, when there was despatched from England to America a pack of *blood-hounds*, by whose peculiar instinct, it was expected that the British troops would be materially aided in discovering the tracks and retreats of Indian foes. The British have never stooped to the employment of martial instrumentality of so vile and barbarous a description, except in their contests with hostile Indian tribes, or revolted negro slaves. Sir William Johnson, indeed, seems to have been guided by a policy equally adroit and liberal in his conduct to the savage tribes. He cultivated their good will by the respect which he showed for their manners and usages, and studied to promote their friendly coalition with the British colonists by encouraging the inter-

¹ "The head chief, called *Outacite* or *Mankiller*, on account of his many gallant actions, was introduced by Lord Eglinton, and conducted by Sir Clement Cotterel, master of the ceremonies. They were upwards of an hour and a half with his majesty, who received them with great goodness; and they behaved in his presence with remarkable decency and mildness."—Ann. Reg.

APP. III. marriages of the two races. His exertions appear to have
1764. been attended with some success: for we find that in the year 1766, no fewer than eighteen marriages were contracted under his auspices between Indian chiefs and young white women of South Carolina.¹

After a very short and imperfect trial of the new system which appropriated to the crown the entire and exclusive management of Indian affairs, the British government confessed its disgust and impatience of the enormous expense with which the system was attended. So frequent and so considerable were the drafts of the commissioners upon the British treasury, on account of presents, real or pretended, to the savages, and of the erection and maintenance of the numerous posts which it was necessary to establish in order to administer the royal prerogative along the entire line of the frontier settlements, that the cabinet at length began to entertain the purpose of restoring to the respective provinces the conduct of their own concerns with their rude untamed neighbours;² and were deterred from carrying this purpose into effect, only by the progress of the quarrel in which Britain was led to invoke the aid of Indian arms against her revolted American subjects.

While the British government and the greater number of the British colonists, though occasionally prompted by interested motives to caress the Indians, yet despised them as a savage and inferior race, and were guided in their intercourse with them solely by commercial or political considerations,—there had never been wanting, since the first foundation of civilized society in America, a class of men who pitied instead of condemning the barbarism of the indigenous people, and laboured with generous zeal to elevate and refine their temporal and spiritual condition. We have remarked occasionally the missions which proceeded from New England among the Indians, and surveyed the pious labours of Elliot, Mayhew, Brainerd, and other pious and peaceful conquerors of the souls of men. The New England missions still continued to be prosecuted in spite of the obstructions and counteracting influence of the quarrels and wars between the two races of

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1762, for 1765, and for 1766.

² Franklin's Correspondence.

people ;¹ and were aided, or imitated, by the awakened christian APP. III.
 charity of several others of the provincial communities. 1764.
 But since the death of Brainerd, by far the most admirable and interesting efforts for the conversion and civilization of the Indian race, had proceeded from the society of the Moravian brethren—a class of christians which must be acknowledged to have surpassed every other in North America (prior to the revolutionary war) in the patience and assiduity, the wisdom, self-denial, and efficacy of the conduct by which they studied to promote the welfare of mankind, and enlarge the acknowledged dominion of God. There had arisen, unquestionably, among the puritans, as excellent individual missionaries as have ever existed in the world, since the days of those men of whom infallible wisdom has pronounced that *the world was not worthy*: but by no class of protestant christians, was so much missionary merit acquired as by the Moravian brethren. In the education of their own children, not less than in their exertions to instruct adult heathens, the members of this society were pre-eminently successful. One main cause, doubtless, was, that they regarded tuition, whether of children in years or children in understanding, as a process calculated alike for the benefit of the instructors and of the pupils; and were primarily careful to apply to themselves, and practically demonstrate in their intercourse with others, the influence of the doctrines and precepts which they communicated.

We have already remarked the first resort of the Moravian brethren to North America; and have occasionally adverted to the qualities by which this portion of the colonial population was distinguished—their indefatigable industry, their habits of neatness, order, and tranquil propriety, their mild and pacific man- Moravian
Missions.

¹ The New England missions, about this period, seem to have been impeded by the influence and opposition of Sir William Johnson, who was devoted to the interests of British ascendancy, and averse to the formation of friendly relations between the provincial governments and the Indians.—Eliot's New England Biography.

An attempt had been made to educate three young Indians at New York, and at first it seemed likely to be attended with a happy issue. Two of the pupils having acquired a considerable stock of polite accomplishments, returned to their native tribes, who, instead of regarding them with respect, received them with unanimous scorn and contempt. The third became an actor in the New York theatre, and had attained considerable histrionic distinction, when he was recalled to the woods by the threats of his savage kinsmen, who were incensed at his degradation.—Galt's Life of West.

APP. III. 1764. ners, their devout sentiments and charitable conduct, their dis-
clamation of all authority beyond the precincts of their own reli-
gious society, and their abstinence from the employment of negro
slaves.¹ An incident which occurred in the year 1736, served
to animate the purpose which the Moravian society in Europe
had cherished for some time, of attempting the instruction of
the North American Indians. In the winter of that year,
Conrad Weisser, a Pennsylvanian colonist of German descent,
and interpreter between the provincial government and the
Indians, was despatched by the governor of Pennsylvania to
treat with the Six Nations and dissuade them from making
war, as they were preparing to do, on an Indian tribe within
the territory of Virginia. In performing this journey of nearly
five hundred miles, Weisser, forcing his way, mostly on foot,
through deep snow and thick forests, was almost exhausted
by toil and hardship; when he met with two Indians who
exhorted him not to faint, but to take courage,—adding, that
the sufferings endured by a man in his mortal body, cleansed
the imperishable soul from sin. On his return, Weisser related
this occurrence to Spangenberg, a bishop of the Moravian
society in Pennsylvania, by whom it was reported to the
brethren in Europe. They were greatly struck with it, and
determined to spare no pains to instruct these blind yet think-
ing heathens in the knowledge of a better way to that expia-
tion of which they felt the necessity, and impart to them the
experience of the only fountain capable of cleansing the human
soul from sin. Rauch, a Moravian missionary, arriving at
New York from Europe in the year 1740, commenced a course
of apostolic labour among a tribe of poor, ferocious, and dis-
solute savages, inhabiting the borders of Connecticut and
New York. The sachem or chief of the tribe, declared of
himself and his people that they were all helplessly sunk in
poverty, drunkenness, and every vice and crime that could
defile and degrade human nature; and protested that the mis-
sionary would confer an inexpressible benefit upon them, if he
would teach them how to lead a wiser and happier life. They
listened with profound astonishment to the first promulgation
of the doctrines of Christianity; but soon rejected them with

¹ *Antc*, Book IX. and Book X. chap. i. and ii.

unanimous derision. Rauch, however, was not to be discouraged : he persisted in his pious labours, without any other visible fruit except increased unpopularity and ridicule among the Indians ; till one day the chief, who was himself the worst man of the tribe, earnestly requested him once more to explain how the blood of a Divine Redeemer could possibly expiate and obliterate the defilement of the human soul. Rauch declared that the most valuable gift in the world could not have afforded him a gratification comparable to the delight with which that question inspired him. He who so felt, was formed to conquer in this glorious and happy field. Appearances of mental conversion, and a considerable reformation of manners ensued among the tribe. But now was roused the jealousy of a number of European traders who derived a guilty gain from the dependence to which the savages were reduced by their vices and poverty. Some of them threatened to shoot Rauch if he remained longer in the country : others assured the Indians that the missionary's instructions tended to delude them, and that his real purpose was to carry their children beyond seas, and sell them for slaves. The abused and ignorant people, as credulous of this falsehood as they had been slow to believe divine truth, began to regard the missionary with rage and detestation ; and meanwhile were copiously supplied with strong liquor by those perfidious counsellors, for the purpose of stimulating them to wreak their erring fury on their benefactor. Rauch overcame this opposition by a wisdom and virtue equal to every emergence. He softened the resentment of some of the white settlers and traders by the mild courtesy of his manners, and gained the protection of one of them by teaching his children to read and write. To the Indians he behaved with an unabated tenderness and confidence, which powerfully appealed to their remaining virtue. They were struck with the new proof which he afforded of the efficacy of the principles which he had preached in shielding their professor from evil and fear, and rendering him always secure and happy : they were astonished that a man whom they insulted and threatened, persisted in following them with patience, benedictions, tears, and every other demonstration of affectionate and disinterested regard ; and one of them who had made an attempt to take the mis-

APP. III.
1764.

APP. III. sionary's life, contemplating him as he lay stretched in placid
1764. slumber on the floor of the Indian's own hut, was constrained to acknowledge to himself, "This *cannot* be a bad man: he fears no evil; not even from us who are so savage; but sleeps comfortably, and places his life in our hands." The Indians at length became generally convinced that no evil could be meditated by a man who was himself so completely exempted from the suspicion of it; his influence was restored and augmented, and his mission attended with happy effects. All the Moravian missionaries had been charged by their ecclesiastical superiors to study rather the confirmation of the faith, than the increase of the numbers of professed converts. Rauch's first congregation consisted of ten baptized Indians, whose devotion, simple yet profound, enthusiastic yet sincere and sustained, excited the grateful delight of their pastor and his associates, and the wonder and admiration of the wildest of the surrounding savages. Meanwhile, from the increasing resort of members of the Moravian brotherhood to Pennsylvania, there were formed the principal settlements of the society, at places which obtained the names of Nazareth and Bethlehem; and from which with all convenient speed, missionaries animated with the same spirit as Rauch, carried the benefit of their instructions and example among the Delaware Indians, with the usual varieties of success which ever attend the preaching of the gospel, and which are far more strikingly manifested in tribes and nations to which the tidings are delivered for the first time, than in societies which have long been nominally christianized, and where habit blunts the force of impressions, and diminishes the significance of language. In the year 1742, Count Zinzendorf, who was chief bishop or warden of the society of Moravian brethren, having visited their settlements in America, travelled along with Conrad Weisser, Peter Boehler, and other associates, into the Indian territories, and preached to a great variety of tribes. Some of the fiercest warriors of the Six Nations, who, from a recent quarrel among themselves, had been roused to a state of high and dangerous excitement, at the time when he casually met them, were exceedingly struck with the mixture of simplicity, authority, and benevolence that characterized his address to them; and after some consultation, thus replied

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1764.

to it:—"Brother, you have made a long voyage over the seas, to preach to the white people and to the Indians. *You* did not know that we were here; and *we* knew nothing of you. This proceeds from above. Come therefore to us, both you and your brethren: we bid you welcome: and take this fathom of wampum in confirmation of the truth of our words." After a short but successful ministry in America, Zinzendorf returned to Europe in 1743,¹ leaving a numerous and increasing body of missionaries to pursue the labours thus felicitously begun. It was a rule with these missionaries, to earn their own livelihood by bodily labour for behoof of the objects of their pious concern; and this rule, their christian moderation enabled them generally to practise, although their savage employers could afford only a slender reward of their toil: but whenever they could not subsist in this manner, they were provided with the necessaries of life by the society at Bethlehem. They lived and dressed in the Indian style; insomuch that they were sometimes mistaken for Indians by travellers: and Frederick Post, one of their number, did not scruple to marry a baptized Indian woman. In addition to the inevitable drudgery and privation which they incurred, they were frequently exposed to insult and danger from those savages who rejected the boon of the gospel with contempt, and heard its testimony against the corruption of human nature with indignation. Gideon Mark, one of the missionaries, having been waylaid by an Indian who presented his gun and ordered him to prepare to die for insulting the Indians by talking perpetually of their need of Christ, replied calmly, "If Christ does not permit you, you cannot shoot me." The savage, struck with the language and demeanour of his intended victim, dropped his gun, retired in silence, and soon after embraced the faith which, he perceived, was calculated to form the highest style of human character. A curious objection, which reminds us of incidents and reproaches that attended the first promulgation of the gospel upon earth, was raised by some Indians, who, observing their friends greatly moved by the discourses of the missionaries, exclaimed that

¹ He died at London in the year 1760, admired and lamented in the old world and the new. Many of the Indians, though seventeen years had elapsed since his visit to them, were affected to tears by the tidings of his death.

APP. III. these men must be sorcerers and in league with evil spirits,—
1764. for that nothing but magic could produce such effects. The most formidable opposition was created by a number of white traders who were incensed at the influence which the missionaries exerted in persuading the savages to abstain from the purchase of spirituous liquors, to avoid contracting debts, and to exchange hunting for agriculture. They were aided by some weak and ignorant or bigotted colonists of New York and New England, who looked on the Moravian Society as a branch of the church of Rome, and were convinced that the spread of their tenets and influence would promote the interests of France among the Indian race. Several of the missionaries were seized as Romish teachers by certain of the inhabitants of Connecticut and detained in custody for some days, till they were liberated by order of the provincial governor. But in New York which abounded with traders hostile to the conversion of the Indians, and contained a number both of clergymen and laymen devoted exclusively to the church of England, the opposition grew daily stronger, and was inflamed by the fluctuating politics of the Six Nations. Some of the colonists assured their savage neighbours that the Moravian brethren were not *legally* entitled to exercise the pastoral office which they usurped—a statement which the Indians were totally unable to comprehend: others, and especially the persons engaged in the Indian trade, attempted to debauch the new converts and seduce them to resume the vices they had forsaken; and the provincial magistrates committed several of the missionaries to prison as enemies of the British government, and corrupters of its Indian allies. The most respectable inhabitants of the province, who had at first imbibed prejudices against the missionaries, were very speedily disabused, and not only encouraged them to persevere in their useful labours, but openly declared of them, that they were, of all men, the best instruments of the security of the colonists and the happiness of the Indians. At length, however, in consequence of a report that a number of the Indian converts had wholly detached themselves from their previous friendly connexion with Britain, the public rage was kindled to such a pitch that an act of assembly was passed, prohibiting any member of the Moravian Society from preaching or residing

among the tribes connected with the province. This policy APP. III.
 was very ill calculated to soothe or conciliate the Indians, who
 had begun generally to conceive a high regard for the mis- 1764.
 sionaries,—of whom some now quitted the province, and
 others, lingering in it with the hope of being yet permitted to
 resume their labours, were afterwards thrown into prison and
 treated with great severity. The Indians who had seemed
 most attached to them, became the objects of a strong aver-
 sion and jealousy to many of the colonists, who loudly and
 fiercely importuned the government to send troops to destroy
 them. Not long after the departure of the missionaries, a
 number of converted Indians of the confederacy of the Six
 Nations, forsaking their country and kindred, followed their
 teachers to Pennsylvania, and established themselves at
 Bethlehem.

Meanwhile, and for several years after, Spangenberg,
 Nitschman, Cammerhoff, and a great many other pastors,
 supplied by the Moravian brotherhood, were actively and suc-
 cessfully engaged in proselytizing and civilizing the savage
 tribes adjacent to the colonial settlements of Pennsylvania,
 Delaware, and New Jersey. The labours of these excellent
 servants of God and friends of men, to which we must at
 present advert but briefly, have been recorded with great
 minuteness, yet in a very interesting and agreeable manner,
 by the historian of the Moravian Missions in America.¹ They
 collected various Indian societies, in which the duties of
 morality were practised, the habits of civilized life adopted
 and studied, and the profession of christianity embraced with
 a sincerity which was tried and attested by patient virtue and
 severe suffering. The Indian converts, and their children,
 were taught to read; and some portions of the Christian
 Scriptures were translated into various dialects of the Indian
 tongue. So far from pretending to any civil superiority over
 their converts, the missionaries appeared at once their teachers
 and their servants; and, at all the settlements, not only par-
 ticipated in their rural labours, but appropriated to them-
 selves the heaviest part of every drudgery,—in consideration
 of the incompetence of Indian constitutions for steady and

¹ Loskiel. See Note XII. at the end of the volume.

APP. III. continuous toil. The progress of these beneficent exertions was interrupted by the breaking out of the last war with France, and by the ravages which the Indian allies of the French inflicted on the borders of Pennsylvania. Many of the Pennsylvanian colonists were gradually incensed to such a degree, by the devastation of their country, the massacre of their friends, and the danger of their families, that they conceived an incurable hatred and jealousy against the whole Indian race. A sect of fanatics now sprung up in Pennsylvania, who clamorously demanded the total extirpation of the aboriginal tribes, lest the vengeance of Heaven should fall upon the christians, for not destroying the heathen, as the Israelites by divine command had destroyed the Canaanites of old. The general delusion was increased by the publication of a letter, which was said to have been intercepted by the British forces, purporting to have been written by a French officer at Quebec to one of his friends, and extolling the Moravian brethren as the secret partizans and useful agents of France. This letter, whether the offspring of French or of English artifice, produced all the effect that its fabricators expected. A universal cry was raised through the British colonies, that the Moravian settlers were *snakes in the grass*, and the most dangerous because the most perfidious enemies of Britain. The persons and settlements of these calumniated men, in Pennsylvania, were now exposed to the greatest danger; and the provincial government, though sincerely inclined to protect them, was evidently incapable of withstanding the headlong rage with which the great body of the people imprecated vengeance on the Moravian brethren and their Indian flocks. The mildness and patience with which this injustice was borne by the objects of it, was insufficient to quell the popular fury, which was on the point of venting itself in some notable outrage, when, to the general surprise, a sudden attack was made, by the Indian allies of France, on a considerable Moravian settlement, in which a number of the brethren and of their Indian associates were slain. This circumstance, concurring with the willingness of some of the Moravian settlers to prepare for defensive war against the enemy, and the liberal contributions of others to relieve the wants of their fellow-colonists, who had suffered from hostile

rage, produced a great abatement of the public jealousy and displeasure. The blessings of tranquillity and security were now enjoyed in the Moravian settlements, till the year 1763, when all the hatred and fear that the Indian race had ever excited in Pennsylvania, were revived with augmented violence by the great Indian war which broke out at that period, and the dreadful desolation of the frontiers of this province which attended the first explosion of its fury. A general attack was now projected by a great number of the colonists on the Indian inhabitants of the province, of whom many were forced to fly; some were conveyed to Philadelphia, by order of the government, which tendered them its protection; and some were cruelly slain. In the county of Lancaster there had resided for certain years, a small society of Indians, who had always demeaned themselves in a peaceable and friendly manner towards the white colonists. Yet a number of these colonists, consisting chiefly of Irish emigrants, who inhabited the township of Paxton in the county of York, now resolved on the destruction of that harmless and defenceless society; and assembling on horseback for this purpose, repaired to the Indian settlement. Intelligence of the approaching attack had been conveyed to its intended victims: but they disbelieved it; and accounting the white people their friends, apprehended no danger from them. When the party who had marched from Paxton arrived at the Indian settlement, they found only the old men, the women, and the children; all the rest of the tribe being absent at their various agricultural avocations. But the minds of the assailants were steeled by prejudice and passion beyond the prevalence of prayer, and the claims of age, infancy, and sex: and every individual of the Indian race who fell into their hands was murdered. This bloody deed excited grief and horror in all the sober and humane portion of the provincial community: and the remainder of the unfortunate Indians, who by absence had escaped the massacre, were promptly conducted to the town of Lancaster, and lodged in the jail as a place of security. The governor of Pennsylvania at the same issued a proclamation, expressing the strongest disapprobation of the deed, offering a reward for the discovery of its perpetrators, and prohibiting all future violence to peaceable inhabitants, whether

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APP. III. white men or Indians. In contempt of this proclamation, a party of the assassins, reassembling shortly after, marched to Lancaster, where they broke open the jail and butchered all the unhappy objects of their animosity who had been placed there for shelter. Another proclamation was issued : but, like the former, it seemed rather to stimulate than to allay the popular rage : for a strong detachment of Pennsylvanian colonists now marched towards Philadelphia, with the declared purpose of slaying the Indians who had been conveyed there ; and from the temper of a great part of the populace of that city, it was manifest that they were more disposed to favour than resist the bloody enterprise. From the English soldiers who were stationed in the town no aid was to be expected by the provincial government : they had refused to permit the Indians to be quartered in their barracks ; and crowds of people had gathered around these unfortunate, yet mild and patient beings, and loaded them with imprecations, disclosing so much bitterness and blindness of anger and malevolence, that the slightest retort would infallibly have produced the most tragical consequences. In this emergency, a number of the more respectable citizens of the place, with arms in their hands, declared their determination to prevent Philadelphia from being profaned and disgraced by the shedding of innocent blood. The quakers were particularly active on this occasion ; and many of their young men, with a generous ardour, more admirable, perhaps, than the most rigid adherence to their sectarian principles, flew to arms in defence of their oppressed and endangered fellow-men. The insurgents having advanced to German-town, within five miles of Philadelphia, the governor of the province in dismay fled for safety and counsel to the house of Dr. Franklin ; and Pennsylvania seemed to be on the brink of a civil war. Franklin, however, and some other popular individuals, undertook to meet and address the insurgents ; and exerted their sense, dexterity, and influence, so effectually, as to prevail with them to relinquish their ferocious design, and return to their homes. To improve this happy success, Franklin immediately wrote and published a pamphlet in defence of the Indians, which produced a considerable effect in soothing the passions of his countrymen and restoring tranquillity. But the wrathful

jealousy and aversion with which the European colonists regarded the aboriginal race of people, though appeased, was by no means eradicated; and how easily its savage fury and injustice could be reproduced, was manifested in the year 1768, when some Pennsylvanian planters, having committed an unprovoked and barbarous murder of ten Indians, were rescued by popular insurrection from the visitation of public justice. From the year 1763, however, till the revolt of America from the dominion of Britain, no general or considerable obstruction impeded the exertions of the Moravian brethren to disseminate among the objects of their care the principles, habits, and benefits of piety, morality, and civilization. During this interval, they pursued their labours with patient and well-rewarded diligence; combining the zeal of the Puritans, with the mildness of the Quakers and the address of the Jesuits; and rejoicing in the promotion of the Divine glory and human good, attested by numerous conversions of Indians, who lived in the faith, and died in the conscious solace of the gospel. Nor were these efforts relaxed even by the serious obstruction which their efficacy received from the events of the revolutionary war.¹

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¹ Loskiel's History of the Mission of the United Brethren among the Indians in North America. Ann. Reg. for 1768. Franklin's Memoirs.

BOOK XI.

PROGRESS OF THE
STATES OF NORTH AMERICA,
TILL THEIR ASSUMPTION OF POLITICAL INDEPENDENCE.

BOOK XI.

PROGRESS OF THE STATES OF NORTH AMERICA, TILL THEIR ASSUMPTION OF POLITICAL INDEPENDENCE.

CHAPTER I.

Relative position of Britain and her Colonies.—Policy of the British Court—
Severe enforcement of the existing Commercial Restrictions—Aggravation of the
Commercial Restrictions.—Project of the Stamp Act.—Remonstrances of the
Americans.—Idea of American Representatives in the House of Commons.—
The Stamp Act Debated in England,—and Passed.—Act for Quartering
British Troops in America.—Proceedings in Massachusetts,—and Virginia.—
Ferment in America.—Tumults in New England.—The Stamp Officers Re-
sign.—Convention at New York.—Political Clubs in America.—Tumult at
New York.—Non-importation Agreements.—The Stamp Act Disobeyed—
Deliberations in England—Act Declaratory of Parliamentary power over Ame-
rica—The Stamp Act Repealed.

THE notion which we have remarked¹ as having been sug- CHAP.
gested to the people of New England in the beginning of I.
the eighteenth century, by the failure of various attempts of 1764.
the British government to conquer Canada,—that it was not
the will of Providence that North America should be subjected
to the sole dominion of one European state,—was substan-
tially prophetic. The solitary superiority which Britain at
length acquired over America, was destined to be short-lived :
and the concentration was nearly coeval with the dissolution
of European ascendancy and monarchical power in this quar-
ter of the world.

It would be absurd to suppose that Great Britain, even by
the mildest and most liberal system of policy, could have re-
tained the American provinces in perpetual submission to her
authority. Their great and rapid advancement in popula-

¹ *Ante*, Book VIII. chap. i.

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1764. tion, and the vast distance by which they were detached from the parent state, combined with other causes to generate ideas of freedom and independence in the minds of their inhabitants, and portended an inevitable, though, in point of time, an indefinite limit to the connection between the two countries. A separate and independent political existence was the natural and reasonable consummation to which the progress of society in America was tending: and Great Britain, eventually, had but to choose between a graceful compliance, or a fruitless struggle, with this irrepressible development. By wisdom and prudence, she might, indeed, have retarded the catastrophe, and even rendered its actual occurrence instrumental to the confirmation of friendship and good will between the two countries: but her conduct and policy were perversely calculated to provoke and hasten its arrival, and to blend its immortal remembrance with impressions of resentment, enmity, and strife.

Relative
position of
Britain
and her
Colonies.

We have beheld various disputes and controversies arise from time to time between Britain and her colonies, and a reciprocal and progressive jealousy of each other, mingle with the other sentiments that resulted from their connection. Of the controversies that had already occurred between royal or national prerogative on the one hand, and provincial liberty on the other, some, without being adjusted to the satisfaction of either party, had terminated by leaving each in possession, if not in the exercise, of pretensions inconsistent with the avowed claims of the other: and though in certain instances, the colonists had been obliged reluctantly to yield to the superior power which backed the pretensions of the parent state, the rapid increase of their strength and numbers manifestly rendered a submission thus maintained unstable and precarious. The whole strain of British legislation had proclaimed that America was regarded by the British cabinet and by the merchants and manufacturers who influenced its colonial policy, less as an integral part, than a dependent and tributary adjunct of the British empire; and with the growth of the American states, there had grown an indignant conviction in the minds of many of their inhabitants, that their enjoyment of the hard-earned fruits of the dangers, toils, and sufferings by which they had added so many provinces to the

British crown, was unjustly and tyrannically circumscribed, for the advantage of the distant community whence oppression had compelled themselves or their fathers to emigrate, and as the tribute for a protection which they always regarded as scanty and inefficient, and daily found less requisite to their security. We have seen¹ that long before the conquest of Canada was achieved, the American colonists were prepossessed with the conviction that Britain dreaded this acquisition as perilous to the stability of her colonial empire. The occasion which they had judged or supposed her to judge so critical to their political relation, now occurred. The late war, which among other results, enlarged the British empire by the conquest of Canada, loaded Britain with a vast addition to her national debt, and finally issued in a treaty of which all parties perceived, as soon as the heat of controversy and the illusions of national glory had subsided, that the grand effect consisted in the accession that was made to the domestic strength and resources of the British settlements in America. While the issue of the contest was thus favourable to America, and, in immediate effect, profitless if not disadvantageous to Britain; its history afforded to the parent state occasion more plausible than just, to impute all her efforts to a generous concern for the protection and defence of her colonial offspring. From this, there was a brief and easy advance to the persuasion, that the dependent people who had reaped such high and exclusive benefit from the war, should be compelled not only to relieve the parent state of all the burdens which it had entailed on her, but to incur such additional sacrifices as might exempt the parent state from the apprehension of their abusing the advantages and opportunities now placed within their grasp. If it was natural that such views should be impressed on the friends of British supremacy, by the issue of the late war, it was not less natural that this issue should inspire the partizans of American liberty with very opposite hopes and ideas. They naturally expected to reap advantage from the crisis whence their political opponents derived auguries of danger and trouble. Perhaps, if Pitt had still directed the policy of the British cabinet, a line of conduct might have

¹ *Ante*, Book X. chap. II.

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 1764. been traced, on the part of Britain, congenial, or at least far less uncongenial than that which was actually adopted, to the wishes and sentiments of the colonists.¹ But Britain had been precipitated, partly at least by Pitt's genius, into an emergency, from which she was left to extricate herself, by the aid and counsel of feebler and inferior spirits : and the treaty of Paris, while it *seemed* to extirpate all future cause of dispute between Britain and France, manifestly enlarged and rendered more distinct and important every dispute that had either hitherto occurred or was likely to occur between Britain and her colonies. This treaty, in effect, was nearly coeval with the commencement of that quarrel or series of quarrels which issued in the revolt of America from Britain.

In surveying the first introduction of the system of commercial restrictions which Britain imposed on her colonies by the Acts of Navigation, we had occasion to remark ¹ that a political connection between two countries, founded upon or interwoven with such a commercial system, manifestly carried within itself the principles of its own dissolution. Britain termed herself the parent state ; and in conformity with the ideas suggested by this title, exacted from the American colonies an obedience analogous to that filial submission which recognises the authority without discussing the reasonableness of parental commands. Unfortunately, she was not consistent in transferring to her colonial policy the principles by which, in domestic life, the conduct of every wise parent towards his offspring is regulated, and which prompt him gradually to relax his control, and finally to content himself with an affectionate and reverential deference, the fruit of habitual respect and long remembered kindness. On the contrary, the views entertained and the objects pursued by Britain were such as necessarily required her to aggravate the severity of her authoritative control, in proportion to that very increase in the strength and resources of the colonies which rendered them increasingly averse to endure, and addi-

¹ Pitt might have retarded the American, as Necker might have retarded the French Revolution ; if free scope had been afforded to the genius and policy of these ministers. But it is idle and absurd to suppose that in either case, the revolutionary catastrophe could have been averted, or even very long deferred by ministerial talent and address.

² *Ante*, Book I. chap. iii.

tionally qualified to reject it. Doubtless, the lapse of time, though in the main injurious, was yet in some degree propitious to the authority of Britain and to the connection between the two countries. The commercial restrictions had subsisted so long, that habit, without endearing them to the colonists, had trained many minds to regard them with a temper little less favourable to their prolonged endurance : and in the course of various controversies in which the colonists had defended their chartered privileges and domestic institutions against British aggression, their leading politicians had seemed to vindicate if not to applaud the commercial restrictions, which they characterized as the only legitimate channel by which the authority of Britain could be exerted or her revenue augmented at the expense of America. Assuredly, even although no other subject of quarrel had presented itself, the commercial restrictions alone must in process of time have occasioned the disruption of the American provinces from the British empire. Every step in the progressive advancement of these distant communities, was a step towards potential independence. This was acknowledged by all the political writers and reasoners in Great Britain : but they indulged, and not altogether unreasonably, the hope that the day was yet far distant when Britain must either voluntarily forego her authority, or behold its bonds violently broken and cast off. Their opinion respecting the remoteness of the period when America must necessarily be enfranchised from the commercial fetters imposed by the parent state, was partly derived from a consideration, exaggerated perhaps, of the divisions and mutual jealousies by which united council and action on the part of the American colonies was obstructed. They were unable to foresee the erring course of policy by which Britain herself was to assist her colonies to surmount this obstruction.¹ Even the most liberal and considerate of these politicians failed to perceive that the time was now come for anticipating, by a gradual relaxation, that entire removal of the commercial bonds of America, which they all acknowledged to be finally inevitable. An abrupt and total enfranchisement of the commerce of the Americans, conceded

¹ We have seen, however, that Lord Camden was enabled to predict this, by his rare sagacity and superior opportunities of observation and intelligence.

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the British
Court—

at last to irresistible force, was a prospect humiliating to Britain, and unpropitious to the lasting subsistence of friendship and good will between the two countries. When we consider the apprehensions that had been entertained in Britain of the probable influence of the conquest of Canada in accelerating the era of American independence, and the knowledge which the British politicians must have possessed that the same events had been prospectively united in the speculations of the Americans, it seems strange that not one British writer or statesman should have perceived that now was the time for Britain to retreat with dignity and honour from the dangerous career in which she had so long persisted, and to infuse the influence of more liberal principles into the relations which she maintained with the American colonists,—increased and rapidly increasing as they were in strength and numbers, and elated by a conquest which delivered them from the fear of every power except their own parent state,¹ and excited their spirits to a pitch of fervour which must have rendered them peculiarly susceptible of the strongest impressions of gratitude or resentment. This oversight, however, was but a trivial error in comparison with the rash and fatal conclusion which the British court and its counsellors embraced in the present critical juncture,—that the existing circumstances of the empire required an immediate extension and aggravation of the control exercised by the parent state over the colonies; and that Britain, for the preservation of her ascendancy, endangered by the growth and the security of America, must instantly embrace a course of policy tending at once to undo all the advantage which she had gained to her own interest and reputation by conquering Canada, and to confirm all the

¹ The French court, though mortified by the loss of Canada, was by no means insensible of the disadvantageous position in which Britain was placed, relatively to her own colonies, by the acquisition of it. In the commencement of their revolutionary struggle, the Americans besought the aid of France not only to free them from the yoke of Britain, but to enable them to conquer Canada, Nova Scotia, and Florida. The French court, it is certain, refused to accede to the projected conquests; and some time after declined even the more tempting proposal of reacquiring Canada to itself. “The cabinet of Versailles was compelled by good policy to regard the supremacy of England over Canada, as a valuable source of inquietude and jealousy to the Americans. The neighbourhood of a formidable enemy, necessarily enhanced the value which they attached to the friendship and support of the French monarch.” Sevelingues’ Introduction to Botta’s History of the War of American Independence.

distinct and opposite impressions of advantage resulting to America from the abstract circumstance of this conquest having been affected. The superior force of Britain had been the instrument, and her guardian care the pretext for a tyrannical system of colonial policy, which she now prepared to push to extremes of vigour never before attempted, and at a period when the original relations of strength between herself and her colonies had undergone a signal modification, and when she herself had just concluded a series of efforts tending, doubtless, to their protection and advantage, but tending to it so effectually as to render her guardian aid in future unnecessary to them. Desirous to impress her colonial subjects with the belief that British protection was essential to their security, she had long refrained from subduing the neighbouring settlements of France; and having eventually been provoked to undertake this conquest, she committed the great but by no means unnatural blunder of expecting to reap at least as much benefit from the service by which she had delivered her colonies from the danger of hostile vicinity, as she had formerly gained from their conviction that her assistance was requisite to counteract and repel it. Often before the actual conquest of Canada, had the American colonists urgently but ineffectually implored the protecting or vindictive aid of British troops. It was not till this conquest had been effected, that they learned, from the same English newspapers which announced the treaty of Paris, the intentions of the government of the parent state to maintain permanently a regular army in America, and support it at the expense of the colonies.

We have had frequent occasion to advert to the smuggling which was practised in all the American provinces, and which from the first establishment of the act of navigation had formed and preserved channels of traffic contradictory of its provisions. This contraband trade continued to exist and increase, notwithstanding the opposition which it received from the custom-house officers appointed by the British government, whose utmost exertions indeed would have been inadequate to suppress it, and whose activity in the discharge of their unpopular duties, was, in almost all the colonies, somewhat relaxed by the apprehension of provoking an ebul-

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lition of public rage, the more dangerous to them because they could expect only a languid and reluctant support from the provincial magistrates and assemblies. In the interval which elapsed between the conquest of Canada and the peace of Paris, the trade of the British settlements in America was largely and rapidly extended: and as the contraband will always keep pace with the legitimate trade which is unnaturally confined, the same period was signalized by a proportionate increase of smuggling. This circumstance was regarded with great and disproportioned jealousy by the British ministers who hastened to adopt a system of remedial measures more active than judicious, and announcing a total disregard of that fundamental maxim of sound policy which forbids the employment of violent precautions in the cure of evils intimately connected with the sources of national prosperity. Meditating, a more entire subjection of America to the dominion of the parent state, they resolved to begin by a more strict and vigorous exertion of the national prerogative in those instances in which the colonists were already accustomed to submit to its operation, and to acknowledge its legitimacy. In pursuance of this design, an attempt was made, shortly after the establishment of peace, by a novel expedient which has been ascribed to George Grenville the chancellor of the British exchequer, to deal a blow which it was supposed would prove destructive to the contraband trade of the colonies. All the commanders and other officers of British ships of war stationed off the American coasts or cruising in the American seas, now received injunction and authority from the crown to act in the capacity of officers of the customs: they were compelled to take the usual oaths of office administered to the civil functionaries with whom they were thus associated; and they were encouraged to reconcile themselves to what they might otherwise have esteemed a degradation of their service, by the extension to them of the usual custom-house policy which appoints an ample share of contraband and confiscated cargoes as the reward of the captors. This measure at once afforded a great addition to the executive force of the custom-house establishment in America, and introduced a sudden and striking change in the style and temper by which the exertion of this force was characterized.

Unconversant, and sometimes totally unacquainted with the laws which they were now required not merely to guard, but to administer, the British naval officers in the discharge of their new functions exerted against their fellow-subjects the same rough and impetuous energy which they had recently displayed with so much advantage and applause against the common enemy : and while they augmented the odium of an unpopular system by fully developing its vigour, they exposed even their legitimate operations to additional obloquy by numberless blunders and mistakes, into which they were hurried by their ignorance and habitual disregard of caution, and which rendered lawful commerce almost as perilous to the colonists as contraband trading. Some cargoes were unjustly confiscated ; many vessels were unreasonably detained, to the heavy detriment of their owners ; and in several instances, these violations of justice were ascribed rather to eager cupidity and confidence of impunity than to involuntary error. The regular custom-house officers stationed in America were fully acquainted with the limits of the powers and duties committed to them ; and were deterred from overstraining the one or violating the other by the fear of popular indignation, or of the justice of the provincial tribunals. But these restraints were derided by the naval officers, who exercised their new authority with a hardihood congenial to their professional character, and confirmed by the consciousness that, whatever wrongs they might commit, no nearer redress was competent to the sufferers than what might result from an application to the admiralty or treasury of England. To conceive the extent of the mischief thus inflicted, it is necessary to recollect that the British naval officers at that period were in general a race of persons very inferior to the educated, humane, honourable, and high-minded men by whom this branch of public service has been subsequently adorned. The ministers of Great Britain were perplexed and provoked by the incessant complaints of these acts of injustice, and of the injury inflicted by their measures on that regulated commerce which it was the declared and immediate object of their policy to foster and encourage. They persisted, however, in the obnoxious experiment to which they had resorted ; either from unwillingness to betray symptoms of retraction in the very outset of an ex-

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tensive and arduous scheme of policy ; or because they hoped that the naval officers would acquire from longer familiarity with their new functions, a discrimination sufficient to restrain them from illegal outrage or dangerous excess. But evils of still greater magnitude and still more embarrassing in their nature, were destined to ensue from the employment of the naval officers, whose conduct, in proportion as they gained farther acquaintance with the regulations of the commercial code which they were authorized to administer, became proportionally more grievous and irritating to the Americans, and more detrimental both to the distinct and the united interests of the colonies and the parent state. A traffic had subsisted for many years between the British and the Spanish colonies in North and South America, to the great advantage of both, but especially of the former and proportionally of their parent state ; the chief materials of this traffic on the part of the British colonists being commodities of British manufacture or productions of their own plantations, with the price of which they were enabled to purchase additional quantities of British goods for their own consumption. There had also subsisted a commerce not less ancient and extensive between the colonies of Britain in North America, and those of the French in the West Indies ; which was highly and mutually beneficial, as it consisted chiefly of commodities which, unless thus exchanged, would have been entirely valueless or even cumbersome to their possessors. The British government, sensible that these branches of commerce did not contravene the spirit and purpose of the acts of navigation, and were attended with great advantage to the American colonies and their parent state, connived at them so broadly that they were pursued without disguise or molestation, and had even been exempted from interruption during the late war, till the invasion of the French West India islands by the British forces, when they sustained a check which, however, was withdrawn at the return of peace. But though not opposed to the spirit of the commercial code of Britain, they were found to vary so far from the literal import of its provisions, as to afford to the new auxiliaries of the custom-house a plausible pretext of duty for measures to which they were prompted by the strongest temptations of interest : and accordingly they seized indiscrimi-

nately, and confiscated all the ships, whether American or foreign, which were engaged in conducting those branches of trade, and which the custom-house officers stationed on shore had hitherto permitted to pass without question or notice, in consequence of a different view of the law, confirmed perhaps by a greater deference to popular sentiment and opinion. These proceedings, which were supposed to have been equally surprising and unwelcome to the British ministers, excited much discontent in America; where many persons declared that their country would speedily be deprived of all trade, whether legitimate or contraband; that the regulations by which their commerce had been hitherto fettered, were now wantonly and violently straitened to such a degree as to strangle it altogether: and, to render these declarations more significant, announced their intention to purchase in future no British commodities with which they could possibly dispense, since they were to be disabled from paying for them with the gold which they had hitherto procured from the colonies of France and Spain.

It was impossible for the British ministers to disregard the complaints, equally just and forcible, which were provoked by this sudden and unlooked-for extension of the trade laws. They hastened to remove all doubts with respect to the legitimacy of the commerce between the American colonies and the settlements of France and Spain, by procuring an act of parliament,¹ which expressly authorised this commerce, but, at the same time, loaded the most valuable articles which it embraced with duties so heavy as to amount to a virtual prohibition. The system of colonial policy, which Britain had so long pursued, was carried to the highest pitch, and a new and important pretension was broached in support of it, by this statute, of which the preamble declared, that “it is just and necessary that a revenue be raised in his Majesty’s dominions in America, for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the same.” Besides the provisions relative to commerce with the French and Spanish settlements, the duties upon *enumerated commodities* were augmented; and measures of additional severity were denounced against Ame-

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tion of the
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¹ 4 George III. cap. 15.

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mericans who should violate the commercial restrictions, and foreigners who might aid or participate with them in contraband trade. It was farther enacted that the penalties which might in future be incurred by the breach either of this statute or of any of the other laws relative to the colonial trade, should be recoverable in any court of record within the colony where the offence was committed, or in any court of admiralty in such colony, or in any other port of America, at the election of the informer or prosecutor; and that defendants even though acquitted, should not be entitled to costs or damages if the judge should certify that the prosecution had not been utterly wanton or malicious. Thus, to secure the execution of unpopular regulations, was a form of legal process still more odious employed. Persons charged with offences against the revenue laws, might, at the discretion of the prosecutor, be deprived of trial by jury and compelled to defend themselves before distant tribunals, where the chances of conviction were multiplied by the rule which assigned to the judges and officers of admiralty courts a proportion of the fines and forfeitures awarded by their decrees.¹ This measure excited, apparently, more regret than resentment in the minds of the colonists, who contented themselves with expressing their sentiments of it in earnest, but ineffectual petitions to the British government for some modification of its rigour. Even Hutchinson the American historian and politician, whose views in general betray a strong bias in favour of the system pursued by the parent state, expresses the most unqualified reprobation of the impolicy of some of the provisions of this act, and ascribes the patience and submission with which the colonists endured its pressure, to the practical relaxation which it received from the connivance or indulgence of the custom-house officers.²

But the submissive deportment which, in spite of their dis-

¹ "In this triumphant career of the minister, the voice of America was silenced by a rule of the House of Commons not to receive any petition against a money bill. This rule, indirectly founded on the supposition that the people who are to pay the tax are present by their delegates in parliament, not less manifestly proved the absurdity and injustice of the existing case, in which the Americans, though the parties chiefly interested, were the only parties neither actually nor virtually represented." Minot. It is sometimes necessary to take liberties with this author's language in order to render his meaning more easily intelligible.

² Ann. Reg. for 1765, and for 1775. Minot. Hutchinson. Holmes.

content, the colonists maintained for a while, under this sudden and severe aggravation of the commercial restrictions, was, if not mainly occasioned, at least considerably promoted by the anxious expectation which had been awakened with regard to the issue of a legislative project far more interesting and formidable to their apprehensions, and which had been for some time entertained and openly announced by the British government. To this point, all the fears and doubts, engendered by previous rumours and speculations, began to converge; and the colonists, absorbed by the interest of a great approaching crisis, which involved the pretensions of the parent state to a new and important channel of dominion, were naturally impressed with more than usual moderation of sentiment in relation to an exertion of British prerogative, which, although overstrained and oppressive, was still confined to a channel of which they customarily acknowledged the legitimacy. We have seen that, at a very early period of their history, the colonists on various occasions resented their subjection to the British commercial code, not merely on account of the oppressive severity of its regulations, but with express protestation against the injustice of financial burdens imposed on them by a parliament in which they were not represented; and that, appealing sometimes to the particular provisions of their royal charters, and sometimes to their general character of denizens of the British empire and partners in the whole scheme of British liberty, they had questioned the competence, even while they submitted to the force of parliamentary enactments, which, in imposing taxes on their commerce, seemed to them to usurp the proper functions of their own provincial assemblies.¹ In process of time, the colonists became gradually inured to this authoritative pretension. It had long formed a prominent part of the established political system, under which the population of America had been renewed and enlarged by domestic increase and foreign accession; while both the odium and the pressure of its actual enforcement had been mitigated by the indulgent moderation or timidity of the revenue officers, and the growth and subsistence of an extensive contraband trade.

¹ See particularly *ante*, Book II. chap. iv. Book IV. chap. ii. Book VI. Append. I., and Note XV. at end of Vol. II.

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 1764. An opinion gradually arose in America, that the regulation of foreign commerce was the prerogative by which the legislature of the parent state was distinguished from the legislative organs established in the remote provincial settlements. The expediency of a complete harmony of views and principles in the entire system of the national commerce, it was said, required that there should be conceded to the metropolitan legislature a privilege, limited indeed by certain principles, yet derogating considerably from the integrity of that constitutional liberty which, in abstract right, belonged to the colonies as a constituent portion of the British empire. So far, but no farther, the colonists were generally prepared, more or less willingly, to recognise the subjection of their favourite principles to circumstantial exigence. But in proportion at least to the pain of this concession, was the jealous and resolute vigilance with which they contended for the sacredness of its limits. So early as the year 1696, we have seen that a proposition, originating in England, to impose a domestic tax on the colonies by a parliamentary enactment, was openly combated, as suggesting a measure beyond the competence of the British parliament.¹ Since that period, we have beheld the same design more than once resumed and abandoned by British ministers. Now however, it had been, if not more deeply pondered, at least more deliberately entertained; and the Americans who had hitherto regarded it with suspicious aversion or contemptuous incredulity, were suddenly aroused to the necessity of finally admitting, or successfully resisting its operation, by the intelligence of a near and certain attempt to carry it into execution.

It was in the commencement of the present year, that the American assemblies were apprised by their agents at London of a communication which they had received from Grenville the British minister, who acquainted them with his intention of procuring forthwith an act of parliament imposing a stamp duty on the colonies, but declared, withal, his willingness to substitute in place of this duty, any other internal tax which the colonists themselves would preferably recommend, and which should present the likelihood of yielding an equal

Project of
 the Stamp
 Act.

¹ *Ante*, Append. I.

revenue. Grenville doubtless expected to facilitate the execution of the adventurous purpose which he cherished, and to reduce some if not all of the American provinces to the attitude of acquiescence in the new pretension of parliament to administer their domestic taxation, by tempting them to suggest or declare what they would consider the least obnoxious form in which this pretension could be exercised: and the disappointment of his expectation in this particular, ought to have served as a warning against the danger of undertaking a novel and important stretch of power over a people with whose temper and sentiments it appeared that he was very little acquainted. For, so far from being seduced by his overture, or even contemplating it as an expression of courtesy or good will, the Americans universally regarded the invitation to suggest a tax to the minister as an insult even more outrageous than the meditated injury of taxing them without their own consent. It was a maxim which had always regulated the policy of Massachusetts, and which the example of this province had propagated in the neighbouring colonies, — that it is better to endure the worst extremity of injustice with the silence of despair or resignation, than to purchase a mitigation of its pressure by any act tending to recognise the legitimacy of its principle. The people who cherished this generous maxim, only waited, whether consciously or not, the attainment of sufficient power and the occurrence of a fit season to assume the rank of a free and independent commonwealth. Grenville had informed the American agents that either the stamp duty or the substitutional tax which he expected the colonists to suggest, would be imposed during the session of parliament in the present year: but whether the disappointment of his expectation left him unprepared with the details of his own particular measure, or whether he persisted in hoping yet to receive from some part of America the suggestion which he had invited, he advanced no farther during this year than to propose to the House of Commons a resolution which was adopted, and voted simultaneously with the bill for extending the commercial restrictions,—“that towards farther defraying the expenses of protecting the colonies, it may be proper to charge certain stamp duties upon them.” He was again mis-

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The communication of the British minister's project excited mingled sentiments of alarm, aversion, and resentment in America; and the language in which the unanimous objection of the colonies was conveyed, varied only in proportion as one or other of those sentiments preponderated in the minds of the inhabitants of the several states, and of their leading politicians and counsellors. In the course of the present year, this project was discussed in all the provincial assemblies, and provoked from them all, petitions and remonstrances to the British government, which differed, indeed, in their topics and tone, though breathing the same sentiment and purpose, and some of the more remarkable of which deserve a particular commemoration. The Pennsylvanian assembly was distinguished above all the others by the temperate, yet firm, dignified, and consistent strain of its debates and proceedings; in which there appeared no trace of those dissensions which had lately been reproduced in the province by the illiberal policy of the proprietary family. It was declared in this assembly, that the proposition of the British minister was a deviation from ancient usage, unconstitutional, unjust,¹ and unnecessary: that the parliament had *no right* to tax the colonies at all: that it had been hitherto the invariable practice, when pecuniary subsidies were required from the colonies, that the king, with the advice of his privy council, directed his secretary of state to write circular letters to the several provincial governments, explaining the particular exigence of

Remonstrances of the Americans.

¹ As the charter of Pennsylvania (see *Ante*, Book VII. chap. i.) was more favourable to the prerogative of the British parliament than any of the other American charters, the Pennsylvanians never willingly cited it in this controversy. One of their advocates preferred to cite the following passage extracted from an old European historian:—"There is neither king nor sovereign lord on earth, who has beyond his own domain power to lay the imposition of one farthing on his subjects without the consent of those who pay it, unless he does it by tyranny and violence."—Philip De Commines, cap. 108.

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the public service, and expressing the royal desire and confidence that they would provide for it by granting supplies proportioned to their abilities and loyalty: that the colonies had always evinced a dutiful compliance with those requisitions, and during the last war, in particular, had exerted a liberality so far exceeding their proportionate liability to sustain the general burdens of the empire, that the king had acknowledged their claim to a compensation, and the parliament had for five years successively returned them a part of their annual contributions: that the proposition to tax them in parliament was therefore equally unnecessary and unjust: that by the constitution of the colonies, it was their sovereign alone who was competent to treat with them in relation to subsidies; and that it would be derogatory both to their rights and their dignity, to make any treaty on this subject with the British minister, whose application to them, instead of communicating the wishes of the king, had conveyed the command or menace of a financier, with whose projects, for aught they knew, the king might be totally unacquainted. In conformity with this latter sentiment, they took no formal or official notice of Grenville's project, but sufficiently indicated their opinion of it, while they professed their readiness to sustain a just proportion of the load of debt with which the British empire was burdened, by passing and recording in their journals a resolution of the following tenor:—"That as they always had thought, so they always shall think it their duty to grant aid to the crown according to their abilities, whenever required of them in the usual constitutional manner." Dr. Franklin, whose second mission to England we have already remarked, was charged on this occasion with the office of communicating the foregoing resolution to Grenville, who paid no farther regard to it than what may be implied from the introduction, immediately after, of his threatened stamp bill into parliament. It was the firm persuasion of Franklin, that if the minister had embraced the plan which was approved by the colonists, and had demanded subsidies of them by the intervention of requisitional letters from the king to the provincial governments, he would have obtained far larger sums from their voluntary grants, than he expected to derive from the stamp duty.

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The assemblies of Virginia and New York distinguished themselves on this occasion by the positive and absolute contradiction which they formally expressed and published of the legitimacy of the pretension to tax the colonies by act of parliament. From Virginia there were transmitted petitions¹ to the king and both houses of parliament, referring to the resolution of the House of Commons, which proposed to extend a stamp duty to America, and affirming, in the plainest terms, the constitutional exemption of the colonists from parliamentary taxation. By the influence of the provincial council, however, there was insinuated into these petitions a prudential distinction between the right and the power of the British parliament; and while the right was absolutely denied, the exertion of the supposed power was deprecated in a tone which though firm was yet supplicatory, and which seemed to imply that no opposition beyond remonstrance was as yet contemplated. It was declared, indeed, that the taxation of the colonies by a parliament, *in which they cannot be represented*, would necessarily establish this melancholy truth, *that the inhabitants of the colonies are the slaves of the Britons from whom they are descended*: but while the petitioners lamented the prospect of such bondage, and implored deliverance from it, they breathed not a syllable that implied either the power or the will to resist its infliction. A wise and prudent government, however, would have anticipated only the more dangerous and determined opposition to its measures, from the considerate policy with which the opponents and victims of these measures, while yet there was time to retract them, separated the most unqualified censure of them from the slightest appearance of defiance or menace. From the views and temper that prevailed with the people and the government of Britain at this period, there is, indeed, every reason to suppose that such rational and salutary apprehensions, however seasonably suggested, would have been entirely disregarded. It must, nevertheless, be acknowledged, that the Virginian petitioners did not arrive in Britain till after the Stamp Act

¹ These petitions were composed by Randolph (the attorney-general of the province), Lee, Carter, Wythe, Pendleton, Bland, and other members of the assembly. Richard Henry Lee prepared and proposed to the assembly the resolutions on which the petitions were founded.

proposed by Grenville had been actually introduced and considerably advanced. The petition of the assembly of New York, in addition to similar disadvantage in respect of the date of its transmission, was so warm and unguarded in its reprobation of the pretended prerogative of the British legislature, that the agent of the province was unable to prevail with any member of parliament to undertake the office of presenting it.

The deliberations of the assembly of Massachusetts were similarly retarded, partly by the difference of opinion which prevailed in this province, and partly by the policy of Governor Bernard, who interrupted the sessions of the assembly by long prorogations, and, with the assistance of his deputy Hutchinson, perplexed its debates and obstructed its proceedings. There was, indeed, no portion of the American population more generally animated with a spirit of jealous opposition to British encroachment, or more united by a common sentiment of aversion to the project of parliamentary taxation, than the people of New England: yet from the general diffusion, perhaps, of political knowledge, and the prevalence of political speculation and discussion among them, they certainly betrayed on this important occasion a remarkable discordance in the views which they expressed and the principles which they maintained and appealed to. Never had New England been distracted by more confused and inconsistent councils. All or almost all its inhabitants were prompted by the same sentiment of liberty to oppose the most determined resistance to the threatened aggression; but a great diversity of opinion prevailed with regard to the views and purposes which, consistently with truth and reason, or with interest and expediency, might or should be promulgated as the vindication and definition of the colonial resistance. Happily for the credit of New England, the identity of those resentful feelings which were additionally inflamed by subsequent provocation, finally confounded and effaced the prevalent diversities of political opinion; though doubtless these diversities contributed, with other causes, to the success with which an adroit politician of Massachusetts exerted himself to reduce the language of his countrymen in the present crisis to a moderate and even submissive strain which belied their real sentiments and tended

BOOK to delude the parent state. In every community where a
 XI. struggle with the supreme authority of the empire is provoked
 1764. by tyranny, or excited by faction, the poor are always more
 prone to precipitate matters to extremity than the rich, who
 hoping less from change and dreading more from convulsion
 and discomfiture, are peculiarly interested in supporting mode-
 rate measures and cherishing conciliatory projects and ideas.
 But in addition to this general source of diversified opinion at
 a crisis like the present, there were circumstances in the par-
 ticular situation of America which gave scope to the most per-
 plexing varieties in the views of the political champions by
 whom her interests were advocated. The pressure of the
 commercial restrictions had lately been screwed to a pitch
 which created extreme discontent: and the discussion of this
 grievance and of the means most likely to induce the British
 government to remove it, naturally mingled with the consider-
 ation of the more alarming project of the Stamp Act. Some
 politicians maintained that there was a wide and substantial
 distinction between these two measures; the first implying no
 more than a denial of indulgence; the second importing a
 violation of justice and right. While they deplored the
 severity of the late commercial regulations, they acknowledged
 the abstract competence of parliament to impose them; but
 they questioned its legitimate power to assume the domestic
 taxation of the colonies; and counselled their countrymen to
 solicit a mitigation of the one grievance as a boon or act of
 grace, but to resist the introduction of the other as an unwar-
 rantable usurpation. This was certainly the most prevalent
 opinion. Yet were there other politicians who recognised no
 solid distinction between the unjust origination of a novel
 organ of power, and the oppressive exercise of authority in a
 more customary or constitutional shape; between the multi-
 plication of political fetters, and the aggravation of their
 weight. Governor Bernard, whose insolence to the provincial
 assembly, and devoted subservience to the British court, ren-
 dered him increasingly unpopular in Massachusetts, is said by
 Hutchinson to have agreed with the majority of the people in
 deeming the prerogative of parliament bounded by commer-
 cial legislation, and that the remonstrances of the colonists
 ought to be confined to the project of usurping their internal

taxation. Yet he retarded and obstructed their efforts to vindicate the rights which he believed to be their due; and he published a series of letters *on law and polity in relation to the colonies*, in which he maintained without distinction or restriction that the American colonists were subject to parliamentary taxation.¹ Hutchinson himself, whose wise and upright conduct in the office of chief justice had retrieved the loss of public favour which he incurred by accepting this appointment, and who was now in the enjoyment of a short-lived gleam of popularity, embraced the opinion of those who considered that the distinction between internal and external taxation was pressed by its advocates a great deal too far, and that the late parliamentary statute, of which not merely the incidental effect but the professed design was to raise a revenue at the expense of the colonies, had as certainly transgressed the bounds of British prerogative as the proposed Stamp Act threatened to do. Yet his conduct, like that of Bernard, exhibited a remarkable contrast with his opinions; and he who deemed that the majority of his countrymen erred in not perceiving that a violation of their constitutional rights was committed by the last as well as menaced by the next expected measure of the parliament, was the agent by whom the Massachusetts assembly was persuaded, in its application to the British government, practically to disavow this imputation against either of those measures. The views entertained by Hutchinson were communicated only to his private friends. From a laudable desire by which he professes to have been guided, of avoiding to distract the public councils, and of co-operating with the prevalent party in order to preserve as much of the fabric of American liberty as possible from destruction, he refrained from publicly expressing his opinions, and even countenanced the plea of an entire distinction between external and internal taxation, in the hope (as he said) that concessions to the one measure would fortify the objections

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¹ As a measure of expediency, indeed, but not of right, he suggested that the Americans should be permitted to send representatives to the British parliament. He recommended that the provincial governments should be considerably altered in structure and reduced in number, "as the surest means of preventing revolt;" and that an order of nobility should be forthwith established by the crown in America. Bernard's letters excited much displeasure and inquietude both in Massachusetts and in the other American states.

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that were urged against the other. He even exerted so much activity in the support of his country's interest, as to compose a vindication of the claims of America, which, however, with his habitual policy, he declined to avow, and transmitted for anonymous publication to one of his friends in England. The opinions of Bernard, of Hutchinson, and of various other politicians who in the progress of the controversy came to be ranked as the adversaries of America and the partizans of Britain appear in the outset of it to have been seasoned not inconsiderably with the principles of liberty. The main difference between these men and the more firm and constant friends of America, consisted in the force of the attachment which they cherished for liberal principles, and the extent of the sacrifices which they were willing to incur for their defence and promotion. While one class of politicians in America, not foreseeing the fatal extremities to which the dispute was tending, thus avowed a respect for liberty far exceeding the zeal and fortitude which they were prepared to exert in its favour, the more numerous and more ardent and determined votaries of freedom were induced partly by prudence and partly by a perplexing variety of opinion, to mitigate the harshness of their censure of British policy by expressions of respect and submission to British authority and power, which were far from corresponding with the deliberate frame and temper of their spirits. The majority, doubtless, were favourable to the plea that the right of domestic taxation was the exclusive privilege of the provincial assemblies; and, for the preservation of this privilege, were willing to concede, for the present at least, to Britain the prerogative of external taxation, and even if necessary to submit, though with much ill-humour and reluctance, to the late statute by which the exercise of this prerogative had been so severely strained. But there was also a party distinguished less by its numerical strength than by the ardent zeal which pervaded it, and the acknowledged patriotism and high popularity of the individuals who composed it, which openly maintained that the distinction currently received between external and internal taxation was chimerical and unfounded; that the supreme legislation, if vested with the power of imposing taxes on distant appendages of the empire, must possess this

power to an indefinite and indefinable extent ; and that either the British parliament was incompetent to tax the external commerce of the American states, or, if vested with this prerogative, must be equally entitled to tax at discretion every internal possession, emolument, and enjoyment of the colonists. These views were supported, in particular, in a series of pamphlets composed by James Otis, of which the first was published in the summer of the present year ; and which presented a formidable picture of the boundless pretensions and prerogatives of the parent state, softened, rather seemingly than effectually, by politic concessions to her superior power. It was maintained indeed in these pamphlets, that the electoral franchise and the power of taxation ought to be strictly reciprocal and commensurate ; that the right of the colonists to participate in the application of this principle, was practically recognised by the institution of their provincial assemblies, of which the functions could not be absorbed by the parliament, without violating the principles of the British constitution, unless representatives elected by America were admitted to sit in the House of Commons ; that the parliament had indeed the *power* to commit this usurpation, which the colonists, in the first instance at least, could neither legally nor prudently oppose except by petition and remonstrance ; and that “ when the parliament shall think fit to allow the colonists a representation in the House of Commons, the *equity* of their taxing the colonists will be as clear as their *power* is at present of doing it if they please.” The publications of Otis were so well calculated to promote impressions of British injustice and American danger and suffering, that the provincial assembly, of which a majority was certainly wedded to more moderate and practicable views than these pamphlets disclosed, yet so far approved and countenanced them as to order that copies of them should be transmitted to England and circulated there at the expense of the province. Whatever effect they may have produced in the parent state, their influence upon the colonists, corresponded with the warmest wishes of the partisans of American liberty and independence. The Americans were much more alarmed and provoked by this writer’s forcible representations of the strength and stretch of British prerogative, of the harsh and inequitable manner in which it was

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Idea of
American
represent-
atives in
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exercised, and of the slavish dependence to which its farther development was capable of reducing them, than impressed by his cautious premonitions of the legal criminality and danger which they would incur by resisting the exertions of this prerogative, or by his suggestion of the constitutional remedy by which its inequitable tendency might be corrected, and the interest and duty of the colonies reconciled by admitting representatives from them into the British House of Commons. The idea of admitting representatives elected by the Americans into the legislative assemblies of the parent state, which was first publicly suggested by the historian Oldmixon,¹ afterwards more deliberately considered and recommended by Dr. Franklin,² and now revived by Otis and others, was never definitively abandoned during the whole subsequent controversy between the two nations. At no time was it favourably regarded by any considerable party in either country; and perhaps there were some of its partizans who were induced to support it because it proposed what they deemed an impracticable measure as a condition requisite to the equitable subjection of America to British taxation. The politicians of Britain in general considered that it would be impossible to adjust the proportions between the numbers of the American and British representatives; that the Americans would not be contented with the privilege of sending but a few; and that if a considerable number were admitted, the balance of the British constitution would be destroyed, and a dangerous increase of power communicated either to the prerogative of the crown or to the force of the democracy. The Americans, on the other hand, more justly dreaded that the parent state would never grant to them a representative force adequate to the effectual defence of their interests; and that their distance from the seat of government and legislation would expose them to much oppression, and weaken the dependence of the American representatives upon their constituents. When some discussion arose on this subject in the assembly of Massachusetts, one of the members sneeringly remarked that if his countrymen were determined to have representatives in the British House of Commons, he could re-

¹ See *ante*, Note XV. at the end of vol. ii.² *Ante*, Book X. chap. iii.

commend to them a merchant who would contract to carry their C H A P. representatives to England for half the price which the royal I. court would bid for them on their arrival. Yet this measure 1764. was sincerely espoused and ably maintained, till the last stage of the controversy by a few distinguished supporters. Adam Smith, in particular, the greatest master of political philosophy that Europe has ever produced, recommended it to both countries in his celebrated treatise on the Wealth of Nations,¹ which was first published in the same year that witnessed the declaration of American independence. Two years after, and of course too late, (even if it could ever have been seasonably attempted) the British government, with concession more or less sincere, offered to the people of America a share of parliamentary representation, together with the redress of every grievance.²

The assembly of Massachusetts had already communicated and published instructions to their agents in England, to endeavour to procure a repeal of the late act of parliament, which they characterized with some warmth of complaint and vituperation ; and above all, to oppose the project announced by Grenville, with regard to which they remarked that, “ the right of the subjects to be taxed by their representatives is the grand barrier of British liberty ; and though a people may be free and happy without a particular branch of trade, they can be neither if they have not the privilege of assessing their own taxes.” When, after long prorogations which excited great displeasure against the governor, they were at length in the close of the year enabled collectively to deliberate on the resolutions of the House of Commons, by which Grenville’s project was countenanced, they were naturally prompted by the increased danger by which their liberties were menaced and endeared, to defend them with still greater warmth ; and in the first

¹ He admitted the difficulties with which this measure was prospectively threatened, but maintained that they were not insurmountable ; and that the most considerable of them arose not from the nature of things, but from the prejudices and opinions of the people of both countries. His scheme was, that the number of American representatives should be proportioned to the produce of American taxation. He maintained that, from the rapid advancement of the colonies, it was far from unlikely that in less than a century, the produce of American would exceed that of British taxation, and that the seat of empire would then be transferred to America. This was a prospect neither flattering to the pride of the English, nor grateful to the democratic and economical predilections of the Americans.

² Ann. Reg. for 1778.

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 1764. transport of their zeal and resolution, they prepared an address to the king which strongly asserted their *right* to be exempted from parliamentary taxation. They were induced, however, to depart from the open profession of this bold principle, by the dexterous and assiduous exertions of Hutchinson, who plausibly represented to them that all the interests of America would be injured by an attempt to vindicate any one of them with pretensions so audaciously opposed to the declarations of the supreme legislature of the empire; that openly to deny the right of parliament to pursue, in one particular instance, the policy which it had announced, was not only to enfeeble the objections urged by the colonists against other obnoxious measures, but to provoke the parliament by the strongest sense of insulted dignity to persist even in the measure thus especially stigmatized, and which it could no longer retract without confession of weakness or of injustice; and that the interests of America in so far as they were affected by the late or menaced by the expected act, would be most effectually consulted by petitioning against both merely as severe, ungracious and impolitic proceedings, and forbearing to denounce either as an instance of injustice or usurpation. The hopes thus excited of obtaining relief from the parent state provided her pride were not interested in withholding it, were aided by a prevalent opinion that the colonial agents in England, some of whom were officers or pensioners of the crown, had not sufficiently exerted themselves in the late transactions to defend the interests of the colonists and represent to the ministry the strong aversion with which their measures and propositions were regarded. The agents, in reality, had made but a feeble opposition to the regulations introduced by the late act of parliament: some of them had even declared their opinion that these regulations would obtain general acquiescence; and when the proposition of the stamp duty was communicated to them, not one of them so justly guessed or so honestly anticipated the sentiments of his constituents as to offer the slightest obstruction to it, except Joseph Sherwood, a quaker, the agent for Rhode Island, who protested that he would never consent to the imposition of taxes on America by a British parliament. In conformity with the counsels of Hutchinson, though unfortunately for the credit of their author

and the eventual satisfaction of Massachusetts, the assembly of this province was prevailed with to depart from its first declaration of exclusive right to administer the internal taxation of the people comprehended within its jurisdiction; and instead of this, to address the House of Commons by a petition which, forbearing to insist on *right*, implored for *favour*. The colonists were represented as thanking the parent state for the kind forbearance or connivance which had so long indulged them with the exercise of internal taxation through the medium of their own provincial assemblies,¹ and as humbly soliciting from British grace a continuance of the same boon, or at least such a delay of measures opposed to it as might enable the petitioners, in conjunction with the other provincial governments, to make a more full representation of the state and condition of the colonies and of the true interest of Great Britain with regard to them. With objections, sound enough in themselves, but very feebly and frigidly urged, against the late act of parliament, there were mingled arguments against the proposed Stamp Act derived from the inconvenience that would result from draining the colonies of money and farther reducing the narrow means which they possessed of paying for articles of British manufacture. Indeed, from the language of the Massachusetts' petition, it might have been supposed that an enthusiastic devotion to the interest and advantage of Britain was the sole or at least the predominant sentiment of a community which was in fact pervaded almost unanimously by a resentful sense and vigilant dread of British injustice and oppression. This transaction, under whatever colours it may have appeared at the time to those who actively or passively shared in it, certainly tended to produce the dangerous effect of at once deceiving the British government with regard to the degree and scope of the defensive spirit prevalent among the colonists,

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¹ The Americans were fond of comparing their political relation with Britain, to that which then subsisted between Britain and Ireland. About five years after the present period, doctrines similar to those which Hutchinson now induced an American assembly to profess, were broached in the Irish parliament by a minister of the crown, Sir George (afterwards Lord) Macartney, son-in-law of Lord Bute, who asserted "that Ireland possessed a dependent government, and owed to England the highest obligations for the free exercise of its privileges"—a proposition which excited the liveliest indignation in the Irish parliament, and occasioned the rejection of the measure in behalf of which it had been advanced.—Ann. Reg. for 1769.

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and of provoking this spirit to a higher pitch of excitation by suggesting to the colonists that they had sacrificed the manly assertion of their dignity and their rights to a prudential and yet perhaps after all a fruitless concern for their interests. It was impossible for them to reflect without anxiety on the rashness, disguised by politic show, which they had committed in sanctioning the pretensions of the parent state, and recognising their enforcement as an act of legitimate authority, with the uncertain hope of inducing her to depart from them as an act of lenity and indulgence.

Shortly after the conclusion of this affair, the assembly of Rhode Island despatched delegates to Boston to procure an authentic copy of the Massachusetts' petition, which they purposed to use as the model of an application from themselves in behalf of their own colonial community. But these delegates had hardly reached Boston, when there arrived in this city the reports of the transactions of the assemblies of Virginia and New York. The deputies of Rhode Island at once declared their preference of the sentiments expressed and the language employed by the New York assembly; and carried back with them a copy of its petition, which was cordially embraced and re-echoed by the unanimous voice of their constituents. A corresponding impression was produced in Massachusetts, where the people, sympathetically affected by the magnanimous freedom with which other provinces, in openly professing the sentiments which *they* equally cherished, had either dignified the preservation of American liberty or diminished the disgrace of its overthrow,—began to reflect on their own conduct with sentiments of impatience and regret. Their uneasiness, indeed, was mitigated by the hope of a successful issue of their petition. Some circumstances, nevertheless, served plainly enough to indicate the progress which a spirit of opposition to the parent state was making in this and other parts of America. Instead of the former declarations of individuals in favour of the policy of avoiding to purchase the manufactures of Britain, more general and extended associations for the promotion of this object began to be formed; and as a subsidiary measure, encouragements were offered by patriotic individuals and societies to the formation of domestic though inferior manufactures. But it was a circumstance still more

deeply and forcibly significant, that prudent, firm, and reasonable men throughout the American states, began to unite in the opinion (suggested or at least confirmed by the unequal if not discordant tenor of the petitions from the several provinces) that their country's interest demanded the establishment of some common assembly which should deliberately revolve, and unequivocally express the united purpose and voice of British America.¹

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So various, indeed, was the language of the American colonies, that if Britain at the present crisis had retracted or modified the system which she had begun to pursue, it might have been doubted whether her altered policy was the effect of interest, lenity, or timidity. But no such prudent, just, or generous purpose was entertained by the British cabinet. Although the later proceedings in America were not yet known in England, the resolutions of the assembly of Pennsylvania had been communicated by Franklin to the ministry, and the general aversion of the colonists to the new pretension of parliament was known or anticipated. It was, doubtless, in reference to this feature in the actual condition of the empire, that the speech from the throne at the opening of the session of parliament, while it recommended the establishment of such regulations as might serve additionally to bind together and strengthen every part of the king's dominions, expressed his majesty's reliance on the firmness and wisdom of parliament in promoting the just respect and obedience due to the laws and *the legislative authority of the British empire*. One of the earliest measures that was proposed in this session of parliament, was Grenville's bill for imposing a stamp duty upon the American colonies. On the first reading of this bill, it was opposed as an unjust and oppressive measure by Colonel Barré, an officer who had served with the British army in America, and who was highly distinguished in the House of Commons as an eloquent and zealous advocate of the principles of liberty. Charles Townsend, another member of the house, who afterwards succeeded to the office of Grenville, supported the bill with much warmth, and after severely reprobating the

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Jan. 10.

The Stamp
Act de-
bated in
England—

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1765. Franklin's Memoirs. Wirt's Life of Henry. Minot. Gordon. Hutchinson. Bradford's History of Massachusetts. Pitkin's Political and Civil History of the United States.

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 1765. animadversions which it had received from Colonel Barré, concluded his speech by indignantly demanding:—"And now, will these Americans, children planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence until they are grown up to a high degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms—will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under?" Barré, in an explanatory speech, after repelling the censure that had been personally addressed to himself, thus forcibly replied to the concluding expressions of Townsend:—" *They planted by YOUR care!* No, your oppressions planted them in America. They fled from your tyranny to a then uncultivated and inhospitable country, where they exposed themselves to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable; and among others, to the cruelties of a savage foe, the most subtle, and I will take upon me to say, the most formidable of any people upon the face of God's earth: and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they preferred all hardships to those which they had endured in their own country, from the hands of men who should have been their friends. *They nourished by YOUR indulgence!* They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department and another, who were, perhaps, the deputies of deputies to some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them—men, whose behaviour on many occasions has caused the blood of those *sons of liberty* to recoil within them—men, promoted to the highest seats of justice,¹ some of whom, to my knowledge, were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of a court of justice in their own. *They protected by YOUR arms!* They have nobly taken up arms in your defence; and have exerted a valour, amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded all their little savings to your emolument. And believe me,—remember, I this day told you so—that the same spirit of freedom which actuated that people at first, will accompany them still:—but prudence

¹ Some disgraceful instances of the abuse of royal patronage in the appointment of American judges are recorded in Garden's Anecdotes of the Revolutionary War.

forbids me to explain myself farther. God knows, I do not at this time speak from motives of party spirit: what I deliver are the genuine sentiments of my heart. However superior to me in general knowledge and experience, the respectable body of this house may be, yet I claim to know more of America than most of you; having seen and been conversant with that country. The people, I believe, are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has; but a people jealous of their liberties, and who will vindicate them, if ever they should be violated. But the subject is too delicate — I will say no more.” At the second reading of the bill a petition was tendered against it, from all the merchants of London who traded to America, and who, anticipating the effect of the contemplated measure in that country, were struck with alarm for the security of their outstanding debts; but it was rejected in conformity with a rule of the house, that no petition should be admitted against a money bill in its progress. General Conway, a member distinguished alike by the liberality of his political sentiments and the magnanimous resolution of his character, strongly urged the house, on so great an occasion, to relax this rule, which, he asserted without denial, had not always been inflexibly maintained: but the ministers were earnestly bent on enforcing it in the present instance, in order to justify the application of it to the American petitions which had now arrived at London, and in some of which, it was known, that the *right* of Britain to tax the colonies was openly denied. The ministers wished to avoid a discussion of this delicate point, and perhaps imagined that they had gained their end and prevented the prerogatives of the parent state from being publicly questioned, when the various petitions from the American provinces were rejected as summarily as the petition of the merchants of London. But in spite of their efforts to smother the flame of this dangerous controversy, it broke forth both in the parliament and the nation before the bill could be passed. Alderman Beckford, who, both as a senator and a magistrate, supported the character of one of the boldest patriots in England, united with General Conway in peremptorily disputing the right of the British parliament to impose taxes upon America. Pitt had already, as he afterwards declared, embraced the same opinion; but he was prevented

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1765. from publicly expressing it by a severe sickness, which rendered him at present incapable of attending to business. The supporters of the bill, thus constrained to argue in defence of a principle which they had hoped to be permitted silently to assume, insisted that the functions and authority of the British legislature extended over all the dominions of the empire; and while they admitted the mutual connexion and dependence of the right of being represented and the power of imposing taxes, they assimilated the situation of the colonies to that of Birmingham, Manchester, and other large towns in England, which having sprung up after the frame of the parliament was adjusted, had never yet obtained a share in the form of *actual* representation,—but being (in current phrase) *virtually* represented, possessed all the substantial benefit of this popular right. The opponents of the measure, however, replied that the difference between the condition of those towns and the American provinces, was as wide as the Atlantic ocean: that the towns referred to, might, not unreasonably, be considered as *virtually* represented in a parliament which contained a copious infusion of interests precisely the same as theirs, and which imposed no burdens upon them but such as were shared by its own members and the whole population of the realm; but that the commercial restrictions by which America had been so heavily loaded for the real or supposed advantage of British merchants and commerce, plainly demonstrated how completely the same ocean which separated the two countries had disjoined the interests or at least the views of their inhabitants, and how absurd the pretext that the Americans enjoyed even a virtual representation in the British parliament; that the situation of the colonies was analogous, rather, to that of Ireland, which, though so much nearer to Britain, and originally gained to the British dominion by conquest, still retained her own independent legislature; and that the right of the colonies to participate in the same advantage had been hitherto acknowledged by the institution, and exerted by the instrumentality of the representative assemblies which they all possessed. Such was the commencement of that famous controversy respecting the right of Great Britain to tax America, of which the interest was afterwards so widely diffused, and the features and topics so

forcibly illustrated and amply diversified by the exertions of the ablest writers and politicians in the old world and the new. At present, indeed, it excited, comparatively, but little attention in Britain, where its importance was generally undervalued, except within some mercantile circles where political foresight was quickened by private interest or aided by superior acquaintance with the condition and sentiments of the colonists. The nation at large, accustomed to regard America as a dependent state, and now flattered with the prospect of deriving from it a considerable mitigation of the burdens of the empire, listened reluctantly to arguments which were founded on previous instances of British ascendancy exerted for the benefit of particular mercantile classes and channels of commerce, and which yet opposed this prerogative in the only instance that had ever occurred, of its exertion for the general and undoubted advantage of the British community. So little impression was produced by the efforts of the opponents of the Stamp Bill, that after it had finally passed the House of Commons, where 250 members voted for it and only 50 against it, it was carried through the House of Lords without a moment's obstruction or a syllable of opposition. It seemed as if the interesting topic of controversy awakened by the bill had not yet penetrated into this elevated region of the legislature; as instead of being discussed, it was not even adverted to by a single peer. The bill soon after received the royal assent, and was passed into a law.¹ It began by referring to the statute of the preceding year, and declaring that a farther revenue was necessary than had been derived from the operation of that measure. In pursuance of this preamble, it loaded the colonists with heavy duties imposed on almost every transaction of a public, judicial, or commercial nature in America, and secured by the requisition that papers stamped by the British government with the appropriate duties, should be essential to the validity of all such transactions. A farther security was derived from the infliction of severe fines upon every instance of neglect or evasion of the law. The details of this measure were by no means calculated to palliate the tyrannical injustice with which its principle was reproached

March 22.
and passed.

¹ 5 George III. cap. 12.

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Act for
quartering
British
troops in
America.

in America. Besides the oppressive weight of the various duties imposed by the statute, many of them were laid upon objects which the colonists considered with a peculiar jealousy of regard. The duties imposed on judicial proceedings, newspapers, and bills of lading, the indiscriminate rates affixed to papers at the probate offices, and the duty imposed on every degree or diploma conferred by seminaries of learning, have been particularized by American writers as branches of this measure especially offensive to their countrymen. To crown all, the penalties attached to violations of the act were declared to be recoverable in the detested courts of admiralty. This was, indeed, to wound America in a part where she was already sufficiently sore: and thus, with strangely misguided councils, the parent state, instead of attempting to soften and facilitate the introduction of that obnoxious prerogative which she now resolved to exert over a people already discontented with her treatment of them, contrived to render the first practical introduction of it additionally odious and irritating, by the arbitrary nature of the collateral and subsidiary measures with which it was combined. Perhaps, indeed, it was hoped, in the plenitude of ministerial ignorance, to balance or mollify the displeasure of the colonists, by the opposite sentiment with which they might be supposed to regard a slender boon which the parliament at the same time accorded to them, in permitting American lumber to be carried to all the ports and markets of Europe, and even encouraging by a bounty its importation into Britain. But so trivial was this measure as a compensation, and so unseasonable as a favour, that it was universally regarded either with scorn or total indifference in America,—where all other sentiments were swallowed up in the alarm excited by the Stamp Act. Nay, so paramount was the importance which the Americans attached to this act, that they hardly even remarked a contemporary statute by which the parliament required the provincial assemblies to provide quarters for all detachments of British soldiers in America, and to furnish them with beds, fire, and candles, at the expense of the colonies; though their disgust at such a regulation was sufficiently manifested when their attention was aroused in the sequel by an attempt to carry it into execution. On the day after the Stamp Act was passed, Franklin

communicated the intelligence by letter to a friend in his native country, and added,—“The sun of liberty is set; you must light the lamps of industry and economy.” But his friend prophetically answered, that torches of a very different description would be kindled in this emergency by the Americans.¹

The colonists had firmly expected that the British government would be deterred by their petitions and remonstrances, from persisting in the project of the Stamp Act: and when they learned the opposite result which had actually ensued, they were struck with an astonishment approaching if not amounting to dismay, and which seemed at first to quell every sentiment and confound every purpose of resistance. In Massachusetts, particularly, where the people had been encouraged to expect from the policy which they had pursued, even greater advantages than mere deliverance from the Stamp Act, the disappointment was at once overwhelming from its magnitude, and humiliating from a grating sense of the prostration by which they had ineffectually attempted to evade it: and so calm and deep was the pause during which the spirit of freedom that pervaded this province was collecting its force, and studying the direction in which it might be exerted with the greatest advantage, that some of the partizans of the parent state, mistook the preparation for the dispersion of a tempest, and exulted in the fancied victory of British prerogative, on the very brink of the conflict in which it was destined to perish. Hutchinson, among others, partook the delusion, and in letters to England announced that his countrymen were waiting not to consider if they must submit to a stamp duty, but to know when its operation was to commence, and what farther taxes were contemplated in case the produce of this duty should fall short of the expectations of the ministry. This man's influence and authority in Massachusetts were now entirely and for ever blasted: yet was he able during the first confusion of public feeling, by dint of his address and of the remaining advantage of his situation, to procure from the assembly the re-election of himself and some of his partizans into the provincial council, where, still occu-

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I.
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Proceed-
ings in
Massa-
chusetts —

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1765. Gordon. Miuot. Rogers. Amer. Biog. Dict.

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pying the helm of affairs, he continued his exertions to direct the constitutional organs of the state against the adverse tide of popular sentiment and opinion, until it swelled to such a height as to overwhelm himself and all his adherents. Governor Bernard, in the speech with which he opened the session of the assembly, forbore to make any express reference to the subject, with which every mind was principally engrossed, the Stamp Act; nor even indirectly alluded to it any farther than by remarking that it was happy for the colonists that their supreme legislature, the British parliament, was the sanctuary of liberty and justice; that their sovereign who presided over the parliament, realized the idea of a patriot king; and that accordingly they would doubtless submit all their opinions to the determinations of so august a body, and acquiesce in its measures with a perfect confidence that the just rights of every part of the British empire must be safe in the hands of the conservators of the welfare and liberty of the whole. He expatiated on the advantage which the colonists must derive from the permission to carry their lumber to European markets, which would furnish them with sufficient means to pay for the commodities they imported from Britain, and obviate every motive for persisting in vain attempts to transport manufactories from their ancient and settled abodes. This speech was followed shortly after by a message recommending the new measure of a pecuniary grant to Hutchinson for his services as lieutenant-governor. Never were services more unseasonably recommended to public gratitude and recompense. The assembly took as little notice of the governor's speech, as he had taken of the circumstance most interesting to their feelings and the liberty and happiness of their country: but to his message, they answered that they would make no grant whatever to the lieutenant-governor. Without a moment's delay, they proceeded to review and discuss the treatment they had received from the parent state; and, more desirous to mature their councils than to promulgate their sentiments and designs, they appointed a select committee of their own body to concert and report the measures most suitable to the existing emergency. In conformity with the report of this committee, they soon embraced a purpose of decisive efficacy, and which originated the machinery of the Ame-

ican revolution. They voted a declaration or resolution im- C H A P.
 porting that they were sensible of the difficulties of the predi- 1.
 cament in which the American colonies were placed by the
 late British statutes ; that it was highly expedient that there
 should be held with all convenient speed a convention of com- 1765.
 mittees from the assemblies of all the British colonies, to
 consult upon the present circumstances of the American
 people, and the difficulties to which they were and must yet
 farther be reduced, by the operation of the acts of parliament
 imposing duties and taxes upon them, and to concert a gene-
 ral and humble address to his majesty and the parliament,
 imploring relief ; that the meeting should be held at New
 York on the first Tuesday of the month of October following ;
 and that letters should forthwith be prepared and transmitted
 to the respective speakers of the several assemblies in British
 America, acquainting them with this measure, and inviting
 their accession to it. The project thus announced of strengthen-
 ing the voice, and eventually the force of the American states,
 by combining their counsels, was so firmly yet temperately
 expressed, that the governor and his party did not venture to
 oppose it. Its promulgation was highly agreeable to the
 people, whose hopes were farther animated and their spirit
 additionally roused by the tidings which they now received of
 the courageous and determined expression in other colonies,
 of sentiments congenial to their own. The enactment of the
 stamp duty had not deterred some of the patriots of New
 York from repeating with undiminished, nay with increased
 force and spirit, the objections by which they had formerly
 withstood its proposed introduction : and in a popular news-
 paper of this province, there had been published an inquiry
 into the soundness of the ministerial pretexts for taxing the
 colonies, which, considering the sentiments and temper so re-
 cently displayed by the inhabitants of New York, was calcu-
 lated to produce a very powerful impression upon their minds ;
 and being now republished in New England, was there perused
 by the people with equal avidity and approbation. This
 treatise, or rather manifesto, demonstrated in brief, forcible,
 and perspicuous terms, the absurdity of applying the doctrine
 of virtual representation in the British parliament to the
 American colonies. As every distinct interest in a common-

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wealth, it was insisted, ought to have its due influence in the administration of public affairs, so each of those interests should possess the power of appointing representatives proportioned in number to its own importance in the general scale of the empire. Whenever two interests were so radically inconsistent that the promotion of the one must be necessarily and proportionally injurious to the other, it was impossible that these two could unite in the same government: and hence, if the interests of Britain and her colonies could not (which, however, the treatise with more or less sincerity denied) be made to coincide—if the welfare of the mother country, for example, required a sacrifice of the most valuable national privileges of the colonists,—then, the connexion between them ought to cease, and sooner or later must inevitably be dissolved, and perhaps in a manner ruinous to one, or other, or both of the countries. The British nation, it was maintained, could not long pursue a policy towards her colonies, diametrically opposite to the principles of her own domestic government, without either witnessing the conversion of this government altogether into a system of arbitrary power, or provoking the colonists to reject their partial burdens, and assert that freedom which was denied them by men who themselves had no better right to it. The doctrine of virtual representation was derided by the plea that if Americans might be represented in England without their own knowledge or consent, Englishmen might, by parity of reason and similitude of process, be represented in America. The laws passed in the colonies, it was declared, after obtaining the royal assent, were equivalent to acts of parliament: and hence, in conformity with the new ministerial doctrines, the provincial assemblies might at some future period be rendered instrumental by the crown to the taxation of England. Even if it could be proved (which was denied) that there were towns and corporations in England, of which the situation was entirely analogous to that of the colonies, this circumstance, it was maintained, could serve to show only that some of the English as well as all the Americans were injured and oppressed; without affording the slightest apology for the oppression. It was denied that such terms as Dependence, or Independence, could ever be justly employed to characterize the situation of

the colonies. They were *a part* of the British dominion: and, in an empire pervaded by the same constitutional system, how could one part be said to be dependent on another? All the parts, indeed, were reciprocally dependent on each other for the promotion, convenience, and security of their common and respective rights: but they derived these rights from the author of nature, and not from the generosity or indulgence of their equals.

There was nothing, however, at this period, which contributed more effectually to cherish the warmth, and propagate the influence of sentiments of liberty in America, than the resolutions which were embraced and published by the assembly of Virginia,—and which, as they were prior in actual date to the proceedings of all the other provincial assemblies, have enabled this state to claim the honour of giving the earliest impulse to American resistance.¹ Yet many of the inhabitants, and almost all the leading politicians of Virginia, though they had withstood the purposes, were averse to dispute the commands of the British government, and accounted the submission of the colonies to the Stamp Act unavoidable. Considering their countrymen as not yet able to make effectual resistance to the power of Britain, they shrunk even from the discussion of a topic calculated to promote opinions and awaken passions which might beget, they feared, a premature revolt. Nor were these sentiments confined to Virginia. Some of the most eminent patriots and politicians of the other provinces were unwilling to abet or encourage an opposition which, they believed, could not possibly be successful, and even used means to reconcile their countrymen to the Stamp Act, or at least to promote their submission to it. It was asserted in a popular newspaper, of Pennsylvania,² that the produce of the new stamp duties, for the first five years, was to be applied to the improvement of roads and the multiplication of bridges in America. Even Franklin, who considered the Stamp Act as inferring the total eclipse of American liberty, advised his friend Ingersol, a

¹ It is certain, nevertheless, that the transactions of the assembly of Massachusetts were concluded before the Virginian resolutions were known in that province. The one assembly had adjourned, and the other was dissolved before either was acquainted with the transactions of the other.

² Pennsylvania Gazette, May 30th.

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patriotic and respected citizen of Connecticut, who was in England with him at the time when the act was passed, and had aided him in opposing it, to accept the appointment which the ministry tendered to him, of distributor of stamps in his native province; and so little did he forebode the opposition which was to ensue in America, or the loss of popularity which his friend was to incur by accepting a share in the administration of the Stamp Act, that when Ingersol was departing for America, he charged him to communicate a gay yet politic counsel to the colonists, saying—"Go home, and tell our countrymen to get children as fast as they can," implying that America was not yet sufficiently populous to undertake a forcible assertion of her rights. Many of the Americans however, entertained a different opinion, and revolting from the idea of propagating slaves, determined that the birth-right of freedom which they had inherited from their fathers should be transmitted, unimpaired, to their own descendants. It was by a party, who cherished this generous sentiment, that Patrick Henry was elected a member of the present assembly of Virginia, for the express purpose of supporting and inflaming the expected opposition to the Stamp Act. But so much reluctance and hesitation to handle or even approach this dangerous subject, prevailed in the assembly and especially among those members whose rank and talents had secured to them hitherto a leading influence in its councils, that nearly the whole of the session was suffered to elapse without the slightest allusion having been made to the Stamp Act; when, at length, only three days before the appointed adjournment of the assembly, the topic which engrossed every mind, though no tongue had yet ventured to broach it, was abruptly introduced by Henry. After waiting thus long, in the hope of being preceded, in a matter so momentous, by some member of more established credit in the house, this intrepid politician produced to the assembly and proposed for its adoption, a series of resolutions affirming in the most unqualified terms and determined tone, that the Virginian colonists had originally imported with them from Britain, and ever since claimed, enjoyed, and transmitted an entire participation in every political right and franchise competent to Britons; that the most substantial and distinguished

part of their political birth-right was the privilege of being taxed exclusively by themselves or their representatives; that they had uninterruptedly exercised this privilege, by the instrumentality of their provincial assembly; and that it had been constantly recognised by the king and people of Great Britain, and never yet voluntarily resigned or justly forfeited. This overture of Henry was encountered with the warmest opposition; nor is it surprising that, among its most zealous opponents, were some of the persons who had distinguished themselves by promoting the petitions of the preceding year, which expressed doctrines substantially the same with those advanced in the present resolutions. The same consideration of their own superior wealth and patrimonial stake in the province, which had animated the zeal of these persons in *reprobating* parliamentary taxation, naturally operated to deter them from *resisting* it,—to which they would doubtless seem to pledge themselves, by applying their former language to the present altered posture of affairs. That language, however, though disregarded by the parent state, to which they addressed it, had produced an effect, far exceeding their views and expectations in the colony, and roused in the great mass of its inhabitants a spirit of opposition to tyranny, unallayed and unbounded by prudential considerations. The most violent debates ensued upon the motion of Henry, who, loaded with abuse and galled by menaces from some of his opponents, was provoked at one stage of the discussion, to a tone of defiance, which produced a very singular scene. “Cæsar,” he exclaimed, “had his Brutus! Charles the First, his Cromwell! and George the Third,”—here, he was interrupted by a cry of *treason!* raised by the speaker, and echoed from all parts of the house; but, drowning the cry by the commanding elevation of his own voice, and baffling the charge with superior presence of mind, he resumed the thread of his discourse, with these words,—“George the Third, I say, *may profit by their example*. If this be treason, make the most of it!” We may judge of the temper which Henry found, or created in an assembly which could embrace a measure thus advocated—thus openly associated with revolt and regicide. How altered was the strain of public sentiment in Virginia, since the days in which the peculiar boast of this province

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was the romantic gallantry with which it had espoused the interests of monarchy, against the arms of Cromwell!¹ The resolutions, though opposed by every member who had hitherto enjoyed any pre-eminence, or particular consideration in the assembly, and, among others, by several individuals who were afterwards distinguished as bold and generous champions of American liberty, were finally carried² by a small majority of votes. Fauquier, the lieutenant-governor of the province, no sooner learned this proceeding than he dissolved the assembly. But they had already set the example of resistance, and kindled or seasonably nourished a flame which was to spread over all America. Their resolutions were circulated and re-published in every one of the states; and every where they produced a glow of kindred feeling and purpose.³ The spirit of resistance, thus awakened, was sustained by the prospect of that powerful organ of its expression, which was suggested by Massachusetts, and gradually mounted to such a height, that before the first of November, when the Stamp Act was appointed to have taken effect, the execution of this unhappy measure had become obviously and utterly impracticable.⁴

Ferment
in Ame-
rica.

Amidst the general agitation, all at once a number of party names came into vogue, and operated with their usual efficacy in augmenting the warmth and acrimony of political affections and passions. The distinctive epithets of *Whig* and *Tory*, hitherto little used in America, where they were known merely as the titles bestowed on each other by two parties in the parent state, of which the one was understood to be friendly to liberty, and the other to arbitrary power,—were now employed in all the provinces and especially in Massachusetts, with as much animosity as signalized the dissensions of that

¹ *Ante*, Book I. chap. ii. *ad finem*.

² May 28th.

³ The Pennsylvania Gazette exhibited a remarkable proof of the sudden change in public sentiment occasioned by the Virginian resolutions. We have noted an effort made by that journal on the 30th of May to reconcile the Americans to the Stamp Act. On the 20th of June it displayed a very different spirit in the following observation:—"We learn from the northward, that the Stamp Act is to take place in America on All-Saints-day, the 1st of November next. In the year 1755, on the 1st of November, happened that dreadful and memorable earthquake, which destroyed the city of Lisbon."

⁴ Minot. Bradford. Wirt. Gordon.

remarkable era, when they were first introduced into England.¹ CHAP.
 The partizans of American liberty assumed to themselves the I.
 title of Whigs, and gave the appellation of Tories to the cus-
 tom-house officers, the other functionaries appointed by the
 crown, and in general to all who administered the authority
 or supported the pretensions of the parent state in America.
 But the favourite appellation was suggested by the speech of
 Colonel Barré in the House of Commons, which excited in
 all the provinces the warmest sympathy and applause, and in
 conformity with which, the more ardent patriots every where
 appropriated to themselves the animating title of *Sons of*
Liberty. The justice of the pretensions assumed by the pa-
 rent state was denied, and the whole tenor of her policy to-
 wards America vilified in speeches, pamphlets, and news-
 papers, which addressed the reason and the spirit of the
 colonists, with every argument and consideration fitted to jus-
 tify resistance and kindle resentment. If liberty, it was de-
 clared, be the peculiar due of those who have sense enough to
 know its value, and fortitude enough to incur every danger
 and difficulty for the sake of its acquisition, then are the in-
 habitants of America more justly entitled to this blessing than
 even the people of Great Britain. The founders of the Ame-
 rican commonwealths, it was justly remarked, had been ori-
 ginally constrained by oppression and hardship to emigrate
 from Britain: at their own cost, and with infinite toil and
 suffering they had reared those institutions and planted that
 system of freedom, of which Britain now attempted to bereave
 their descendants. Their acceptance of royal charters, it was
 insisted, could not reasonably infer any obligation beyond that
 allegiance which the supreme head of the realm might claim
 indiscriminately from all its subjects. The assistance which
 Britain had contributed to the defence of the colonies, it was
 argued, must be accounted either a friendly or an interested
 service. If it was an act of kindness, the colonists were will-
 ing to return a suitable proportion of gratitude: if it was a
 mercenary act, it was already repaid by the tribute which was
 derived from the restrictions of their commerce: but never
 had it been demanded by Britain, or conceded by the co-

¹ They were first employed by English politicians in the year 1680. Hume.
 Thus, both in Britain and America, they proved the harbingers of revolution.

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 1765. lonists, that the surrender of their liberties to her was to be the price of this service. It was denied that the submission of the colonists, on former occasions, to acts of parliament which affected their municipal institutions, afforded any fair precedent in support of the present claims of Britain. These exertions of parliamentary authority, it was passionately declared, were such stretches of arbitrary power as the Americans would now no more submit to, than the English would endure a repetition of the *Star Chamber* established by Charles the First, or of the *dispensing power* usurped by James the Second.

A controversy which came home to the bosoms of all classes of people in a great community, could not long be conducted in this animated strain, without provoking some violent and tumultuary proceeding. It was impossible that the people could hear it incessantly repeated or insinuated that America would not submit to the tyranny of England, without demonstrating some degree of readiness or inclination to verify the boast. The tumults which ensued might perhaps have been averted, if it had been possible to convoke at an earlier period the projected convention, and to have soothed the general inquietude by presenting the image of a deliberative body engaged in concerting the most effectual measures for common defence, and on whose wisdom and spirit the hopes of America might securely repose. But long before the time appointed for the convention had arrived, the rising ardour of the people became impatient of farther inaction, and was additionally stimulated by the consideration, which now began to occur, that the proceedings of the convention could not possibly have any effect, or even be known in Great Britain, before the period when the operation of the Stamp Act was appointed to commence. The influence of this consideration was not confined to the poorer and less reflective classes of the colonists: it was partaken by some of the most distinguished inhabitants and considerate politicians of Massachusetts, who fomented the ardour already overboiling in the breasts of their fellow-citizens, and cordially desired to witness an explosion of popular violence, which they vainly expected to moderate and restrain from outrageous excess, and which thus confined they hoped would not appear disproportioned

to the provocation, but operate beneficially in illustrating the past and imparting animation and efficacy to the future addresses of the American assemblies to Britain. Perhaps, also, a vague hope was entertained that a show of resistance might yet contribute to avert the fatal precedent of even a temporary operation of the Stamp Act. Nevertheless, it is generally admitted that neither the populace of Massachusetts nor the more considerate directors of their proceedings contemplated the extent, whether of evil or of good, that resulted from the first impulse that was given to the whirlwind of riot and anarchy. The tumultuary scene which had formerly been produced in this province by the attempt to subject the people to naval impressment,¹ afforded an instance where riot had been promoted by the leading inhabitants without detection, conducted by the mass of the people with entire impunity, and issued in a successful vindication of the provincial liberties. It was at present the more easy, though doubtless also the more dangerous, to produce a similar explosion in Massachusetts, from the peculiar impression which the late occurrences were calculated to make on the habitual temper and favourite sentiments of this people. Resolute and enterprising, firmly and ardently attached to liberty, and proudly cherishing the conviction that theirs was *the leading province of America*,² they had seen *their* representative assembly alone, of all the American legislatures, when menaced with the approach of arbitrary power, beseech exemption from it as an indulgence, instead of protesting against it as an act of tyranny and injustice; and they had envied the bolder tone of other assemblies even while they cherished the delusive hope of reaping advantage from the submissiveness evinced by their own. Among other sentiments excited in this province by the intelligence that the Stamp Act had passed, was a painful embarrassment mixed with strong resentment and derived from the remembrance of that language in which they had so lately characterized this measure while they ineffectually petitioned against it. The embarrassment of the assembly was sufficiently manifested by the caution with which they forebore now either to repeat their former language, or

¹ *Ante*, Book X. chap. ii.

² See Note VI. at the end of the volume.

B O O K abruptly to assume a different strain ; and their purpose was
 XI. rather insinuated than expressed by the reference to a general
 1765. convention, in which it was securely foreseen, that the resolution to assert the *rights* of America would prevail. Proportioned to the restraint thus imposed on the expression of public sentiment and opinion through its constitutional organ, was the rage and mortification which swelled in the bosoms of the mass of the people and at length transported them into acts of unbounded license and disorder. Whether the first indulgence of their passion was instigated by the counsel, or merely supported by the known sympathy and approbation of the more considerable inhabitants, is matter of uncertain conjecture : but the former supposition derives some weight from the comparative order and limitation which marked the outset of the violence, but were completely discarded in the course of its progress.

Aug. 14. On the morning of the 14th of August, there appeared, Tumults in
 New Eng- suspended to a tree which, in the sequel, acquired much
 land — notoriety and received the name of Liberty Tree, in the main street of Boston, effigies representing Andrew Oliver the brother-in-law of Hutchinson, and who had been appointed by the British government to be the distributor of stamps in Massachusetts, and of Lord Bute who was generally regarded and detested as the secret author of every arbitrary measure embraced by the British king and court. Hutchinson, as chief justice, commanded the sheriffs to remove these insulting and menacing emblems ; but the sheriffs either durst not or were not disposed to obey. The council which was assembled by the governor, declined in like manner to exasperate the people by opposing a manifestation of their sentiments which, though indecent, was attended with no immediate violence or breach of the peace. At night the images were taken down and carried on a bier amidst the acclamations of a vast multitude of people through the court-house, and thence down King-street to the stamp office, which Oliver in anticipation of his functions, had lately caused to be erected. This building was instantly levelled with the ground, and the rioters were proceeding thence to Fort Hill in order to conclude their operations by burning their pageantry, when the appearance of Oliver's house which was situated in that neighbourhood,

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tempted them with a new object on which to wreak the rage with which they were blazing. Hutchinson vainly endeavoured to exert his authority in defence of his relative's property: the insurgents, with insult and rough usage compelled him to retire, and having broken into the house from which the family had fled, demolished the windows and part of the furniture. On the following day, Oliver commissioned several of his friends to announce at the exchange that he had declined the office of stamp master: a resignation which he was obliged to repeat again in the evening, in order to satisfy the doubts and soothe the gathering passion of a great concourse of people who had assembled round a bonfire. The populace, however, were but partially appeased. Accounting Oliver no longer a fit object of resentment, they resolved to discharge upon Hutchinson the violence for which they were prepared; and accordingly marching to his house, demanded immediate assurance of the truth or falsehood of a report that he was a favourer of the Stamp Act. Hutchinson, whether from a punctilious sense of dignity, or from unwillingness to commit himself by any public declaration that might be offensive to the British government, declined to appear before this illegal assemblage, or to make any answer to their requisition; and they were on the point of commencing a general attack upon his house, from which they were diverted only by the exertions of a prudent and popular citizen who justly feared that such an outrage would discredit their cause and endanger the advantage which it had already obtained. He pledged himself that Hutchinson was opposed to every statute that was injurious to the country; he declared that it was insulting and unreasonable to require the public appearance of the lieutenant-governor and chief justice in this disorderly manner; and urged his hearers not to stain their proceedings with the iniquity of maltreating an individual who had been forty years in the service of the province. The people yielding rather to their habitual deference to this speaker than to the force of his arguments, complied for the present with the counsel he gave and quietly dispersed themselves.

So far, the career of popular violence seemed to be attended with success, and was almost wholly exempted from blame.

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Hardly a voice was raised in condemnation of disorderly force directed against an object so unpopular, and yet exerted with so much discrimination and self-control. Even Samuel Adams, one of the wisest and most austere virtuous citizens of Massachusetts, was known to approve the demolition of the stamp office. The misfortune was that the populace inflamed by triumphant and applauded violence, had tasted a gratification which it was much easier to tempt them to repeat, than to persuade them to relinquish or restrain within moderate bounds. At the very time when the tempest was supposed to have entirely subsided, it burst out again with redoubled fury. Its second eruption was preceded by various unfounded rumours, and among others that in consequence of Oliver's resignation, the governor had undertaken to conduct the distribution of the stamps. On Sunday the 25th of August, Mayhew, a popular preacher in Boston, delivered from his pulpit a sermon in which the Stamp Act was warmly condemned, and to which, with extreme rashness, if not from unbecoming and incendiary zeal, he prefixed the text, "*I would they were even cut off which trouble you.*" At twilight

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on the following day, the kindling of a bonfire served as the signal of concourse to a large disorderly multitude who repaired in the first instance to the house of Story the deputy registrar of the Court of Admiralty, and forcing their way into it, destroyed all his private papers as well as the records and files of the court. Hallowel the comptroller of the customs was the next object of their vengeance. They broke into his house, and not only demolished all his furniture, but rioted on the liquors in his cellar till intoxication heightened their rage to frenzy. In this condition they directed their course to the dwelling of Hutchinson, where, partaking the tranquil happiness of domestic life, which the warmth and tenderness of his private affections peculiarly fitted him to enjoy, he sat unconscious of the storm that was preparing to burst upon him, and was so soon to desolate the scene of his felicity. Notice of their danger was conveyed to him and his family barely in time to enable them by a precipitate flight to save their lives from the frantic populace, whose rage was not satiated till it had converted the finest house in the province into a mass of ruins. The very partition walls were beaten down ; the furni-

ture broken to pieces ; the family paintings and plate defaced ; a large sum of money pillaged ; and a valuable collection of books and manuscripts, the fruit of thirty years' labour, almost entirely destroyed.¹

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These acts of outrageous violence were, with more or less sincerity, generally deplored or condemned. A numerous meeting of the citizens of Boston, including all the principal inhabitants and leading characters of the place, assembled the next day, and unanimously resolved that the select men and magistrates should be desired to employ their utmost endeavours to prevent a repetition of the late disorders, and should be assisted in this duty by a *civic guard*, which the meeting proceeded instantly to organize. It was not merely by the wealthy, the timid, and the partizans of Britain, that this measure was promoted. So much shocked were all the considerate friends of liberty, with the extravagance which the populace had committed,² and so anxious to disavow it and to manifest their zeal to guard against its recurrence, that if the attempt could now have been made to carry the Stamp Act into execution, the cause of British prerogative would have gained a great and perhaps decisive advantage. But this advantage was lost by delay, and counterbalanced by the impolitic behaviour of the governor. At the very time when he would have been effectually supported in measures tending to repress all violent opposition to established authority, he made an unseasonable concession to the popular desires, and gave a colour of utility and good policy to the late commotion, by publishing a declaration that he had no authority to distribute the stamps, and harboured no such imprudent purpose as the assumption of functions which had not been conferred on him. He offered, indeed, in conjunction with the council, very large rewards for the discovery of the rioters and especially their ringleaders : but it was easier to discover

¹ " Perhaps the sun of liberty must always rise in the midst of anarchy, and gradually dispel its noxious vapours as he ascends to his meridian lustre." Minot. " So infatuated were the people at this period, that if a man had any pique against his neighbour, it was only to call him a few hard names, and his house would be certainly pulled down and his life put in jeopardy." Eliot.

² Mayhew, in particular, was so much affected, that while he denied all intentional accession to the riot, he protested that he would willingly part with all his property to recall his unfortunate sermon. We shall find, however, that his political zeal blazed out not long after with as much fierceness as ever.

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1765. than to convict or punish them. One of the ringleaders, a tradesman of some note, was apprehended by the sheriffs, but instantly released by them without even the formality of an inquiry, in consequence of a threat from a large and respectable portion of the civic guard, that they would disband themselves the moment he was committed to prison. Eight or ten persons of inferior condition were actually imprisoned; and some disclosures injurious to more important characters were expected from them: but they were soon placed beyond the reach of danger by the resolute interposition of a numerous body of their fellow-citizens, who assembling without noise or tumult in the night, compelled the jailor to surrender his keys. The prisoners were liberated without obstruction or disturbance, and enabled by their friends to live in exile or concealment till every prospect of a judicial visitation of their offence had been abandoned. The leading politicians of Massachusetts now took especial care to restrain the popular ardour from exploding again with that active violence which had proved so dangerous and ungovernable: but gradually recovering their confidence, without discarding their caution, and animated by the proceedings of the other colonies, they steadily pursued the purpose of cultivating among their fellow-citizens a spirit of resistance, in unison with a bias to that policy without which resistance could not be successfully undertaken. Among other expedients which were adopted for this purpose, was the institution of a new political journal of which the tendency was illustrated by the emblematic device prefixed to it,—a snake cut into pieces, each bearing the initial letters of the name of one of the American provinces, and the whole surmounted by the motto, *Join or Die*.¹

¹ Hutchinson. Ann. Reg. for 1765. Minot. Bradford. Holmes. Eliot. No man capable of just reflection has ever been the eye witness of a revolution accomplished by violence without being deeply struck with the influence of wealth in rendering its possessors chary of their lives. The poor, who have nothing but their lives, promptly and boldly risk them in defence of that consciousness of liberty which, like Nature's gift of air and light, is a blessing that cannot be supplied by any artificial good within their reach. No generous man ever saw a revolution begun in a civilized community and against a powerful and established government, without feeling the inexpressible usefulness of the poor as the defenders of liberty. The utmost, in general, that the rich at first do, at such seasons, is to impel or promote the excitation of the poor, whose actual or apprehended violence affords to themselves in the sequel a safe pretence for avowed interposition, and an occasion of

The explosion of popular wrath and impatience in Massachusetts, produced or at least promoted corresponding movements and convulsions in the other colonies, of which those that occurred in Rhode Island and Providence were the most violent. About ten days after the first commotion at Boston, a gazette extraordinary was published at Providence with the motto, *Vox populi, vox Dei*, and underneath, the text *Where the Spirit of the Lord is, there is liberty*: and effigies of persons accounted partizans of British prerogative were exhibited with halters about their necks, and were hanged upon a gallows, and afterwards cut down and burned amid loud and universal acclamations. Three days after, a similar ceremonial was enacted by the inhabitants of Newport; but it seemed to have inflamed instead of satiating their rage; for, assembling on the following day, they attacked and destroyed the houses of Howard a lawyer and Moffat a physician, of whom the first had defended the pretensions of parliament with his pen, and the second in conversation had supported the same opinion. Johnston the distributor of stamps saved his house from a similar fate, by publicly declaring that he would never undertake an office disagreeable to his countrymen. In Connecticut, about the same time, the people at sundry places exhibited in ignominious parade, and committed to the flames, the effigies of Ingersol the distributor of stamps, and of various other individuals who advocated the authority of Britain or recommended the submission of America; and the resentment at length became so general and alarming, that Ingersol thought proper to resign the obnoxious office which he had not accepted without hesitation and reluctance. A similar resignation was produced by the spirit displayed at New York, where the Stamp Act was contemptuously reprinted and proclaimed in the streets, under the title of *The folly of England and ruin of America*. The project of obstructing the execution of this act by inducing the officers charged with its administration to resign their functions, was successively embraced by all the British provinces in America, except Nova Scotia and Canada which submitted to the act; and it was aided by the policy

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assuming the completion of an enterprise which they are more fitted to complete than to commence. The popular riot produced the civic guard at Boston.

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which had induced the British government to confide these functions to natives of America. Messervé the distributor of stamps for New Hampshire, son of a brave officer of this province who died at the last siege of Louisburg, in deference to the wishes of his countrymen resigned his office with an alacrity which they rewarded with the warmest approbation. The establishment of the first newspaper in this province which took place in the present year, contributed greatly to the animation and diffusion of public spirit.¹ Mercer the distributor of stamps for Virginia, resigned his office as readily as Messervé, and obtained equal applause. The justices of the peace for the county of Westmoreland in this province, gave public notice that they declined any longer to exercise judicial functions which might be rendered instrumental to the ruin of their country's liberty: and the Virginian lawyers in general declared their resolution rather to abandon their occupation than conduct it with stamped papers. Hood the distributor for Maryland, to avoid resigning his office, fled to New York: but he was quickly pursued thither by a number of the freeholders of his native province, whose remonstrances induced him to subscribe and even attest on oath before a magistrate a document importing his absolute and final resignation. In Pennsylvania, Allen the son of the chief justice, and other public-spirited politicians, chiefly of the presbyterian persuasion, endeavoured, vainly for some time, to persuade Hughes the distributor to resign his office. Even the proprietary party united with them in this attempt, from personal dislike to Hughes who had seconded

¹ We find that newspapers had also been introduced into North Carolina and Georgia at this period. Prior to 1750, there were only seven newspapers in the American colonies. In the present year (1765) there were twenty-six. This is the machinery which, collecting, combining, and organizing the force of those political sentiments and principles which are scattered throughout society, have produced that great living stream of public opinion of which the resistless energy has been so surprisingly developed since the middle of the eighteenth century. Before newspapers were known, the great mass of the inhabitants of every country were very imperfectly acquainted with the domestic policy of their rulers, and the sentiments and interests of their fellow-citizens; and only from the pages of history could they learn to appreciate the foreign policy to which their own national force had been made subservient, and the emergencies, however interesting to themselves, that had befallen neighbouring states. The invention of newspapers formed in every country where it was introduced a channel for the expression of common interest and the flow of public opinion; and their multiplication has tended to combine and ally the force of all the contemporary streams.

all Franklin's measures and been the chief promoter of his late mission to England, and whom Franklin, in return, had recommended to the British government as a fit person to execute the Stamp Act in Pennsylvania, if the Stamp Act were to be executed at all. He was supported in his refusal to resign by the quakers, and by a number of the baptists and of the partizans of the church of England who were willing to submit to the Stamp Act. The assembly, however, of which the quakers no longer possessed the command, gave a vigorous impulse to the public spirit by unanimously protesting that the only legal representatives of the provincial population, were the persons elected to serve as members of assembly; and that the taxation of the province by any other persons whatsoever, was unconstitutional, unjust, subversive of liberty, and destructive of happiness. Resolutions of the same tenor were passed shortly after by the assemblies of Connecticut and Maryland. Hughes was finally constrained to resign his office by the strong manifestation of public feeling which was produced in Philadelphia by the approach of the ships conveying the stamped papers from England; on which occasion all the vessels in the harbour hoisted their colours half mast high, and a melancholy peal was tolled from the muffled bells of the churches. Ere the day had arrived when the execution of the Stamp Act was appointed to commence, every distributor of stamps in America had resigned. The hopes and spirits of the colonists were animated by the tidings of the change of ministry which took place in England in the course of the summer, when Grenville and his colleagues were deprived of office, in consequence of a disagreement between them and the king respecting the terms of a regency bill; and a new administration was formed, at the head of which was the Marquis of Rockingham a liberal Whig, and in which the office of secretary of state was filled by General Conway.¹

The time had now arrived when the measure suggested by Massachusetts, was to be carried into effect: and on the appointed day, there assembled in the town of New York, a convention composed of twenty-eight delegates from the assem-

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tion at
New York.

¹ Ramsay's American Revolution. Ann. Reg. for 1765. Gordon. Belknap. Holmes. Dwight's Travels.

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1765. blies of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina. The assembly of New Hampshire, for some unexplained reason, neglected to send delegates to this convention : and the assemblies of Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia, were prevented from electing delegates by the expedient of long adjournments which the governors of these provinces had recourse to for this purpose. But no substantial advantage was gained by the attempt to disunite the colonies, which, on the contrary, were prompted more strongly than ever to cherish the purpose of union by the opposition which this purpose received from the detested partizans of British prerogative : the assemblies of the four colonies which were not represented on this occasion, took the earliest opportunity to pass resolves and transmit memorials and petitions studiously accommodated to the sentiments and language of its proceedings. Colden the governor of New York had attempted, by the expedient of adjournment, to prevent the assembly over which he presided from contributing to the composition of the convention : but a committee of management which the assembly had elected in the preceding year to conduct extraordinary business emerging during its adjournments, undertook, with general approbation, to counteract the governor's policy and elect delegates to represent itself and its constituents. In Massachusetts, Bernard and Hutchinson, instead of withstanding the nomination of delegates, had endeavoured to make it fall upon their own partizans.¹ Their intrigues for this purpose were but partially successful ; and though they were able to introduce dissension among the delegates of Massachusetts, they failed in the attempt a second time to stifle or disguise the sentiments of the province. Ruggles, whose appointment to be one of the delegates was the fruit of their exertions, refused to acquiesce in the measures of his colleagues : but his dissent was disregarded by the convention, and punished in his native province by a censure of the assembly and by the general contempt and displeasure of the people. Ogden, one of the delegates from New Jersey, also refused his assent to the proceedings of his colleagues ;

¹ This is distinctly avowed in Hutchinson's Letters to England.

for which he was afterwards hanged and burned in effigy by his fellow citizens. The first measure of the convention was a declaration of the rights and grievances of the American colonists; in whose behalf they claimed a full participation in all the franchises and liberties of subjects born within the realm of Great Britain,—of which the most essential were the exclusive power of taxing themselves, and the privilege of trial by jury. The grievance chiefly complained of was the Stamp Act, which, by taxing the colonists without their own consent, and by extending the jurisdiction of courts of admiralty, was declared to have a direct tendency to bereave them of their birth-right of freedom. In conformity with these views, a petition to the king, and a *memorial* to each House of Parliament were composed and signed by the members of the convention: representing, in firm yet loyal and respectful language, that they were animated not less by attachment to the person, family, and government of the king, than by zeal for the preservation of those principles of liberty which had been incorporated with the first establishment of all the American communities; that they acknowledged a *due* subordination to parliament, consistently with the possession of an equal share in the system of political liberty enjoyed by the natives of Britain; that while all the British subjects are entitled to the privilege of being taxed only by their own representatives, the remote situation of the colonies rendered it impracticable that they should be represented except in their own subordinate legislatures: that as the colonial settlements, on the one hand, had contributed to render Britain the most extensive and powerful empire in the world, so the colonists, on the other, esteemed a connexion with Britain their greatest happiness and security: that the permanence of this connexion would be most securely established by making liberty and justice its pillars, and acknowledging that the *inherent* rights and liberties of the subjects in America reposed on the principles of the English constitution: that the American legislatures possessed in sound theory, and in actual practice had always hitherto enjoyed the same authority which the parliament of Ireland still retained, and which the Americans had never deserved to forfeit nor consented to forego: that the commercial duties lately imposed by parliament invaded this rightful authority, and introduced

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clubs in
America.

an unhappy distinction between the Americans and their fellow subjects in Europe ; that without waving their *claim* to be exempted from such impositions altogether, they farther complained of them as burdensome in their extent and grievous in their particular operation : and that they earnestly and humbly intreated the redress of their wrongs and restoration of their just rights and liberties. Having concluded these transactions, and transmitted along with the reports of them a recommendation to all the colonies to appoint special agents in England who should unite their utmost endeavours in soliciting justice to America, the convention dissolved itself. The general approbation with which its proceedings were regarded, tended to promote the growing inclination of the colonists in favour of a system of united councils : and as the provincial assemblies could not yet venture to advance this system to maturity by establishing a permanent convention, the more zealous politicians in several of the states sought to attain the same object by different and less regular paths, and cultivated the principle of union in a form which, without seeming to combine the forces of the colonies, was peculiarly fitted to assimilate the sentiments and inflame the passions of the people. Political clubs and associations had arisen in almost all the provinces, and assumed the title of *The Sons of Liberty*. These clubs now began to form treaties of union and correspondence with each other : and being totally irresponsible for their conduct, freely indulged and inflamed their mutual ardour in secret councils, and rival flights of the most daring spirit of resistance and language of menace. Several of them instituted processions, in which copies of the Stamp Act, after having been exposed to public opprobrium, were burned along with the effigies of its chief promoters. One of them proceeded so far as to circulate printed placards, which were even affixed to the doors of public offices, denouncing vengeance, on the person, house, and effects of every man who should presume either to distribute or even to make use of stamped paper. The club established at Boston signified its commands to Oliver long after he had resigned the office of stamp master, that he should appear on a certain day at the foot of Liberty Tree, and there read aloud a declaration of his having resigned, and attest it upon oath in presence of

a magistrate. In vain he appealed to his former resignation, and intreated that if a repetition of this ceremony were necessary, it might be performed in the town-house: the club peremptorily refused to qualify its mandate or spare his humiliation; and he was compelled to obey. Innumerable satires, political proverbs, caricatures, and pasquinades were published: and incessant activity was exerted over all America to render British prerogative and its partizans hateful, contemptible, and ridiculous, and to fortify the cause of liberty by uniting it with attractions adapted to every variety of human taste, temper, and disposition. The most directly efficacious are not always the most creditable or wholesome measures: and notwithstanding the unquestionable benefit which the interests of liberty derived from those clubs, it is probable that to their operation must be ascribed the harsh and illiberal features by which some of the scenes of the American revolution were defaced. The mystery which overhangs such associations, frequently secures to their mandates and measures a respect and acquiescence from the mass of society which a disclosure of their real elements and composition would neither merit nor be able to obtain: and in the secrecy of their conclaves, the feeble, the cruel, and the dastardly are temptingly encouraged and too often successfully enabled to urge their ferocious and malignant suggestions in preference to the calmer counsels of the just, the liberal, and the truly brave.

The assembling of the convention at New York was an important event for the American states; and that they fully appreciated its importance, was plainly shown by the eagerness with which they approved the proceedings of that body, adopted its sentiments and language, and complied with its directions. Among other consequences which it produced was the deliverance of the Massachusetts assembly from the embarrassment which had hitherto restrained its free and open assertion of the *rights* of its constituents. In the month of September, before the convention was held, Governor Bernard, having convoked the assembly, addressed ¹ an elaborate speech to it upon the alarming aspect of public affairs. After referring to the recent tumults at Boston, with expressions of

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¹ September 25th.

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suitable disapprobation, he undertook the defence of the late ministry of Britain and of the measures which they had pursued. He declared his conviction of the supreme and unlimited authority of parliament; and farther, on grounds of expediency, recommended the unqualified submission of the province to the mandates of a power which it could not resist without augmented distress and inevitable ruin. The ordinary executive government of Massachusetts, he observed, was plainly too weak to contradict authoritatively the late popular declarations that the Stamp Act should not be executed within the province, or to oppose the force by which these declarations were supported: and therefore he now invited the provincial legislature either to strengthen the hands of the executive officers in proportion to the emergency, or at once to acknowledge that, as the Stamp Act could not be executed, so also must all commerce be abandoned, all judicial and magisterial functions suspended, and the whole community resigned to anarchy and confusion. It was the more especially their interest, he assured them, to embrace the former part of the alternative, that they might confidently rely on the redress of all their grievances, provided they yielded in the first instance an implicit obedience to the authority of the parent state. The assembly would have been more perplexed by this address, if it had immediately succeeded the Boston riots, or if it had preceded the intelligence which had now arrived of the change in the British cabinet, and of the determination evinced by the other provinces to resist the execution of the Stamp Act. After some delay, which they would willingly have prolonged, but which the anxious expectation of the people induced them to abridge, they returned to the governor's address a vague and cautious answer, importing, that in a qualified sense, they acknowledged the supreme authority of parliament: that they could not presume to adjust the limits of this authority, but could as little hesitate to declare that "there were bounds to it:" that if an act of parliament was just, it needed neither aid nor confirmation from a subordinate legislature: that if it was unjust and tyrannical, it was null and void, as were formerly declared all statutes inconsistent with the franchises of magna-charta; and that it was strange doctrine, and highly disrespectful to parliament, to maintain

that it required obedience to an unjust law, as a preliminary condition essential to its repeal: that they must desire to be excused from assisting in the execution of an act of parliament which their constituents regarded as subversive of liberty, and inconsistent with that fundamental principle of the British constitution, that taxation and representation are commensurate: that they knew of no general declarations by their countrymen of an intention to prevent the operation of the act of parliament, otherwise than by refraining from the proceedings and transactions which it loaded with imposts: that they saw much misery but no criminality in this choice; and "therefore must consider it unkind in your excellency to reflect on a province, whose unshaken loyalty and indissoluble attachment to his majesty's person and government was never before called in question, and, we hope *in God*, never will again." No sooner were the well-foreboded proceedings of the New York convention known in this province, than the assembly by a unanimous vote resolved, that there were certain essential rights recognised by the political constitution of Great Britain which were founded on the law of God and nature, and were the common property of mankind: that the people of Massachusetts, both by the general principle of birth-right and by the particular terms of their charters, were entitled to participate in these advantages, and could not justly be divested of them by any law of society: that no man could rightfully take either the whole or a part of the property of another without the proprietor's consent; and that on this principle reposed the main pillar of the British constitution, namely, the representation of the people in the same branch of the legislature to which the power of taxing the people was confided: that the citizens of Massachusetts never had been, and never could be adequately represented in the British parliament: that in accordance with their general rights and their particular circumstances, they had always till now enjoyed the privilege of being taxed by their domestic assemblies alone; that all statutes imposing taxes on them, and enacted by any other authority whatever, were infringements of their *inherent and unalienable rights as men and British subjects*: and, finally, that these resolutions should be preserved on record, in order that a just sense both of liberty and of loyalty might

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be transmitted to posterity. Bernard, infatuated by insolence and selfish ambition, perceived now the failure of his policy, without, however, discerning or acknowledging its folly. In a wrathful and intemperate address which he delivered soon after to the assembly, he accused them of having countenanced all the riots that had occurred in Massachusetts, and of being themselves on the eve of open rebellion. To this charge the assembly promptly replied, that they repelled with scorn and indignation the pretext that they had either encouraged or justified the late riots; but plainly declared their opinion that the obnoxious laws which had provoked the tumults, would never have been enacted by the British parliament without the sinister instigation and pernicious counsel of the functionaries of Britain in America. "Impartial history," they declared, "will record that the people of this continent, after giving the strongest testimonies of their loyalty to his majesty, by making the utmost exertions to defend his territories and enlarge his dominions in this part of the world, gave an equal testimony of a love of liberty, and a regard to those principles which are the basis of his majesty's government, by a glorious stand, *even against an act of parliament*, because they plainly saw that their essential, unalienable right of representation, and of trial by jury, the very foundation of the British constitution, was infringed, and even annihilated by it."¹

Nov. 1.

The day on which the operation of the Stamp Act had been appointed to commence was not suffered to elapse without some remarkable tokens of public feeling in various parts of America. At Boston, it was ushered in by the tolling of bells; shops and warehouses were closed; effigies of the authors and abettors of the act were carried about the streets, and afterwards torn in pieces by the populace. In New Hampshire, the people who had hitherto behaved with a remarkable degree of calmness and self-control, were now restrained from a general riot only by the assurance of their domestic government that no attempt would be made to execute the obnoxious law. At Portsmouth, the metropolis of this state, as well as

¹ Bradford. Gordon. Minot. [Here ends the narrative of Minot: and here, accordingly, in tracing the labyrinth of American politics, we lose a guide more liberal, moderate, and impartial in his sentiments, than vigorous or perspicuous in his expression.] Holmes. Hutchinson.

in the towns of Newcastle and Greenland, the bells were tolled to denote the decease of liberty, and all the friends of the departed goddess were invited to attend her funeral, of which the ceremony was enacted with much pomp and solemnity. A coffin, splendidly decorated, and bearing the inscription, "Liberty, aged CXLV years,"¹ was carried in funeral procession from the state-house of Portsmouth, attended with the music of unbraced drums. Minute guns were fired until the coffin reached the place of interment and was deposited in a grave which had been prepared for its reception, when an oration was pronounced in honour of the deceased friend of the people. Scarcely was the oration concluded, when some remains of life, it was pretended, were discovered in the body, which thereupon was eagerly snatched from the grave. The inscription on the lid of the coffin was immediately altered to *Liberty Revived*; a cheerful peal resounded from the bells, and every countenance brightened with joy. Childish and even ridiculous as this pageant may appear to philosophic minds or tranquil spirits, it was well calculated to preserve the sentiment and cherish the earnest purpose of liberty in all classes of the people of New Hampshire. At New York, the day was signalized by an eruption of popular violence, partly provoked by the impolitic behaviour of the governor in demonstrating his expectation of some such occurrence. In consequence of the resignation of the stamp-master, Colden took possession of the first cargo of stamps that arrived from England, and lodged them in Fort George. He was already the object of much popular dislike, which he contrived to augment by the ostentatious precautions which he now adopted for the defence of the stamps in his custody. Offended by this appearance of menace, the people began to assemble in crowds in the streets, and with the usual issue of angry and multitudinous congregations, were easily impelled to enact the violence which the governor had imprudently suggested. They began by seizing the governor's coach, in which they carried an effigy of himself to the public gallows, where they suspended the effigy along with a stamped bill of lading and a figure intended to represent the devil; and then,

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Tumult at
New York.

¹ Computed from the landing of the first colonists of New England at Plymouth, in 1620.

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 1765. transporting the coach, gallows, and effigies to the fort, they burned the whole in triumphant defiance under the very muzzles of the guns. Thence they proceeded to the house of Major James, who had expressed approbation of the Stamp Act, and after plundering it and ravaging his garden, consumed every article of the furniture in a bonfire. On the following day they readily assembled again at the summons of one of their ringleaders, Isaac Sears who had formerly commanded a privateer; and, in compliance with his suggestion, clamorously demanded that the stamped paper should be surrendered to their hands. After some negotiation, the governor submitted to deliver it up to the corporation of the city, and it was accordingly deposited in the Town-hall. Ten boxes of stamped paper which afterwards arrived, were promptly seized by the people and committed to the flames.

Nov. 6. The supporters of colonial rights in the higher classes of society at New York, were struck with alarm at the riotous outrage which their townsmen had committed, and perceived the expediency of constituting prudent leaders for the management and control of the multitude. Having convoked a general meeting of the inhabitants, they proposed a resolution which was readily embraced, to confide the interests of the province with respect to British prerogative, to a committee who were authorised to institute a correspondence with all the other colonies. Sears, and four other persons were charged with this function, which they exercised with much zeal and efficacy. One of the earliest effects of this correspondence was the general adoption and extension of a measure which originated at New York, and proved eminently serviceable in creating within the parent state an interest in unison with the desires of the colonists. It was the merchants of New York who first exemplified the policy of directing their British correspondents to ship no more goods for them until the Stamp Act should be repealed; and farther declared that they would not sell on commission any goods shipped from Britain after the first of January, in the ensuing year, until the tidings of such repeal should be received. This spirited and patriotic purpose was diffused by the clubs and corresponding committees over all America, and every where awakened applause and imitation. A similar non-importation agreement was framed by

the merchants of Boston and Philadelphia shortly after; and, at a meeting of the inhabitants of Philadelphia, it was resolved, though not unanimously, that till the repeal of the Stamp Act no lawyer should support the suit of an English creditor against an American debtor, nor any American make remittances to England in payment of debts. These Philadelphia resolutions were extremely unjust, but by no means unnatural; for nothing is more congenial to the temper of mankind than to retaliate the injustice which provokes their own impatience and complaint. Even when remonstrating against arbitrary power, the Americans refused to permit quakers, and other timid or conscientious individuals among themselves, from submitting, as they were inclined, to the Stamp Act; and to reinforce their own protestations against the injustice of the British parliament, they refused or obstructed the payment of their debts to the very merchants who had strenuously endeavoured to prevent the injustice of which they complained. It may be reasonably supposed that both in this and in other instances, the heated passions of the multitude were artfully directed into channels corresponding with the private interest of sordid and hypocritical counsellors. The non-importation agreement was gradually propagated throughout all America, though its terms were not every where the same; for in some parts and especially in New England, it was resolved to adhere to it, until not only the Stamp Act, but also the previous commercial impositions were abolished. In every colony and every class of society, these compacts were enforced by the guardian care of the political clubs, and aided by the formation of collateral conventions, and the adoption of subsidiary purposes. To encourage a woollen manufacture in America, it was recommended to the colonists to abstain from eating the flesh of lambs; and not a butcher durst afterwards expose lamb for sale. Instead of wearing British cloth, which was formerly accounted a mark of fashion and gentility, the wealthiest colonists now set the example of clothing themselves in old, or in homespun habiliments; and, instead of being married by licences, on which a duty had now been imposed by the Stamp Act, the richer Americans agreed to imitate the procedure of their humbler countrymen, and neither to contract

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portation
agree-
ments.

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BOOK nor countenance marriages celebrated by any other authority
XI. than public proclamation in church. Associations were formed

1766. and resolutions expressed, to abstain from particular luxuries which could be procured only from Britain. The American women distinguished themselves by the eagerness with which they promoted these purposes, and rendered both themselves and the interests of liberty additionally dear to their countrymen, by their prompt and cheerful surrender of every ornament and indulgence of which the use was accounted a demonstration of servility or a contribution to arbitrary power. The domination of Britain was, indeed, much more seriously endangered by the prevalence of industrious and frugal habits among the colonists, than by the most violent and menacing declarations of their provincial assemblies. Economy is essential to national as well as to individual independence. "Save your money, and you save your country," became a proverb with the people of New England. The self-control and endurance practised by those who dispensed with the costly British luxuries to which they had been accustomed, served at once to loosen the dependence of America on Britain, to discipline the character of the Americans to the rigours of warfare, and to diminish the resources of their enemy and oppressor. So forcibly were these considerations impressed on the mind of Franklin, that when the proposition for the repeal of the Stamp Act was afterwards entertained in England, he declared his opinion that the interests of America would be more effectually promoted by a suspension of this act, which would at once postpone a struggle dangerous to the weakness of the colonists and promote among them habits of virtue inconsistent with final or lasting subjugation.

The Stamp
 Act disobeyed.

The only semblance of respect which the Stamp Act obtained in America, was the general suspension of commercial and judicial business that ensued for a while in almost all the provinces. This state of things could not and did not last long: the people soon resumed their former pursuits, and the provincial magistrates their functions; and risked the consequences of exercising them in defiance of the act of parliament. Courageous traders sent their vessels to sea, without any new ceremony or precaution: more timid merchants and

ship-masters gave a colour of legitimacy to their transactions, by obtaining certificates that the persons who had been appointed distributors of the stamps, refused to deliver them. So strong was the current of public will, that the custom-house officers hesitated not a moment to give way to it, and granted clearances to every vessel that sailed, without a syllable of objection to the want of stamps. In Rhode Island the courts of law were never closed for a single day. In Virginia and Maryland, before they had been closed a single month, they were re-opened by general consent. In Massachusetts most of the judges in the inferior courts gave notice that they would discharge their functions as usual: but the judges of the supreme court firmly refused at first to entertain any legal proceedings without stamps: and even the most patriotic of the lawyers were prompted by inveterate professional prejudice, to account it impossible to conduct judicial business in open disregard of a subsisting act of parliament however unjust and tyrannical. At length the popular party prevailed so far as to obtain from the assembly a resolution "that the shutting up the courts of justice is a very great grievance; and that the judges, justices and all other public officers in this province ought to proceed as usual." The judges were compelled to yield obedience to this resolution: and the colonists had the triumph of beholding the mandate of their domestic legislature prevail over the command of the British parliament. The judges, however, declared that they submitted only for self-preservation,—being sensible that they were in the hands of the populace; and by the connivance of the lawyers, but little judicial business was transacted. In South Carolina, the governor still refused his sanction to the conducting of public business without stamps: but the assembly having ascertained that the copy of the Stamp Act transmitted to him from England had been sent in an irregular and unusual manner, laid hold of this pretext, and insisted that he had received no such formal notification of the act as to render it incumbent on them or him to pay any attention to its injunctions. The consciousness of having thus practically rejected the authority of parliament and defied its power, seemed to inspire the colonists with additional boldness of tone, and to impart additional spring and latitude to their

C H A P.
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1766.

Jan. 23.

B O O K speculations and purposes. A series of essays were published
 XI. in the newspapers of New York openly denying that the
 1766. British parliament possessed even the shadow of jurisdiction
 over America, and limiting the constitutional relation between
 Britain and America to the common subjection which the two
 countries acknowledged to the same monarch. The clubs
 and corresponding committees redoubled their exertions to
 influence and unite public feeling: and all who had distin-
 guished themselves by peculiar intemperance of language or
 conduct, consulted their safety or vented their zeal in efforts
 to implicate the great body of their countrymen as deeply as
 themselves in demonstrations of resistance. A union of all
 the clubs in America was proposed, approved, and partially
 executed: the members pledging themselves with their lives
 and fortunes to defend *the British Constitution in America*
 against the measures disclosed in "a certain pamphlet which
 has appeared in the shape of an act of parliament, called and
 known by the name of the Stamp Act;" to support each
 other in all their past and future opposition to such measures;
 and to bring to condign punishment all such betrayers of
 their country as should promote those measures by assistance
 or submission. The people in various places were invited to
 form associations for the protection of their fellow-citizens
 who had signalized themselves by their zeal for American
 liberty. To these invitations, the most cordial assurances of
 February. support were generally returned. Most of the towns in Mas-
 sachusetts replied to an application of this nature, by signify-
 ing *the determination of their inhabitants to march with their
 whole force to the support of the British constitution, and conse-
 quently the relief of those that shall or may be in danger from
 the Stamp Act or its abettors.*¹

The tidings of all these remarkable events in America were
 successively transmitted to Britain, where they produced a
 strong impression on the public mind, together with much
 contrariety of sentiment and opinion. One point indeed, be-
 came every day more undeniably manifest and more pressingly
 urgent: and all parties agreed that affairs could no longer be
 suffered to remain in their present posture, and that Britain

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1765 and for 1766. Belknap. Gordon. Holmes. Franklin's
 Memoirs. Hutchinson.

must either forthwith exert her utmost force to carry the Stamp Act into execution, or promptly repeal it. Each of these views of policy was espoused by different statesmen, and warmly supported by numerous partizans. The new ministers, and especially Secretary Conway who had formerly denied the power of parliament to tax America, were desirous to repeal the Stamp Act : but their sentiments were perplexed and their language modified, partly by the violent opposition of the members and friends of the late cabinet to any such measure, and partly by the pride incident to the possession of power, and aversion to bend or even seem to bend in concession to the hostile and menacing attitude which America had assumed. The prior declarations of parliament and the present temper of the British people forbade every thought of repealing the act on the ground of incompetence : and the violent conduct of the Americans rendered it difficult to reconcile the dignity of the British empire with a repeal founded on the plea of expediency. In circular letters to the provincial governors, Conway expressed the royal displeasure at the riots which had taken place, but added withal that it was "*hoped* that the resistance to the authority of the mother country had found place only among the lower and more ignorant of the people." In fact, many respectable tradesmen, and even some of the principal inhabitants of various parts of America had both promoted and partaken of the resistance of their countrymen ; and of this the ministers had received ample and even exaggerated information from the letters of the royal governors. But, eager to procure a repeal of the Stamp Act, both as a measure of good policy and a stigma upon their predecessors, they willingly countenanced the idea that the agitations in the colonies had been neither general nor formidable : they wished to confine the discussion of the question to considerations of equity and commercial expediency : and affecting to believe that the distress of which many English manufacturers loudly complained at this period, had been wholly occasioned by the non-importation compacts of the Americans, they promoted petitions to parliament for a repeal of the Stamp Act from the principal trading and manufacturing towns in England. No instigation was needed to prompt the merchants of London to aid this purpose : they petitioned

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Deliberations in
England—

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and exerted all their influence to obtain the repeal. The wishes of the ministry were ably seconded by the American agents in Britain, and especially by Dr. Franklin who was examined at the bar of the House of Commons with regard to the actual condition of America and the sentiments, opinions, and conduct of his countrymen. The genius which he exhibited upon this occasion,—the extent and variety of knowledge which he displayed,—the clearness and comprehension of his views,—and the graceful, perspicuous, and forcible language in which his testimony was delivered, attracted universal attention and general praise. Of some of his statements the inaccuracy is certain; and the good faith with which they were propounded, is, at least, doubtful. He was perplexed by the inconsistent desires of vindicating the conduct and protecting the interests of his countrymen, on the one hand, and yet of avoiding to wound the pride of the British nation and government, on the other. Having given an interesting description of America, he defended the Americans with equal force and ingenuity. He affirmed that they were willing to submit to external taxes imposed by parliament; but reckoned themselves, both as partakers of the British constitution, and also in conformity with a just interpretation of their provincial charters, exempted from the authority of parliament in relation to internal taxes: that the Stamp Act was calculated to operate with especial disadvantage in America, and was the cause of the diminished affection of the colonists to the parent state, and of the late non-importation agreements which they had adopted: that the riots had been mere transient and unpremeditated ebullitions of popular passion, condemned by the representative assemblies, and disavowed by all respectable Americans: and that it would be absurd to send a military force to America in order to execute the Stamp Act, as the soldiers would find nobody prepared or disposed to contend with them, and would have no occasion to use their arms, unless they were to employ them in slaying men for refusing to buy stamped paper. A British army despatched to America, he said, would not find, but might easily create a rebellion in that country. Franklin, during his present stay in England, had been hitherto agent only for the province of Pennsylvania: but such was the impression

of his political genius and sagacity produced in America by the report of this examination, that he was appointed soon after to be agent also for Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Georgia. But the policy of the British ministers was counteracted by the efforts of their parliamentary opponents, who, in the letters which were produced from the royal governors and other officers of the crown in America, found materials for a description very different from Franklin's, of the actual state of affairs in the colonies. These functionaries who had encouraged the authors of the Stamp Act to believe that it would be easily carried into execution, and who had themselves sustained numerous indignities in the course of the opposition which it had eventually provoked, were prompted both by concern for the reputation of their counsels and by vindictive feelings, to impute the opposition to the intrigues of a few factious men, and at the same time to give the most irritating picture of the excesses with which it had been attended. From these representations the friends of the Stamp Act deduced the conclusion that America had openly defied the power and authority of Britain, and was in a state of actual rebellion. And has it come to this (they asked) that Britain must yield to the commands and menaces of America?¹ and that parliament must recede from a prerogative which it has solemnly asserted, in accommodation to the will of a handful of British subjects, who so far from deserving favour or indulgence, merit the severest chastisement for the undutiful insolence they have displayed? This appeal was but too well calculated to interest the passions of the English,—a people remarkably distinguished by their haughty fear of seeming to yield to intimidation, and (like most great nations) much more susceptible of a vigilant jealousy than of a liberal estimate of their dignity and honour. So strong was its effect both in parliament and in the nation at large, that Franklin, who anxiously watched the progress of the discussion, assured his friends in America that, in all probability, the repeal of the

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¹ Shakspeare has anticipated this strain of sentiment in the following lines:—

“ *O Dieu vivant !* shall a few sprays of us,—
Our scions put in wild and savage stock,
Spirt up so suddenly into the clouds,
And overlook their grafters.”

HENRY V.

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 1766. Stamp Act would not be obtained. The embarrassment of the ministers was unexpectedly increased by the reluctance with which Pitt, who had now regained his health, and who neither communicated nor acted in concert with them, undertook the defence of the boldest and most objectionable proceedings in America. Inflamed with resentment and disdain, by a speech of Grenville, who declared that the Americans were encouraged to persist in a mad, ungrateful, and rebellious career, by reliance on the countenance of some British statesmen,—Pitt warmly replied that such an imputation should never discourage *him*. “We are told that America is obstinate”—he proceeded—“that America is almost in open rebellion. Sir, *I rejoice that America has resisted*. Three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest.”¹ Deprecating any attempt to execute the Stamp Act, he declared, “I know the valour of your troops, and the skill of your officers; but in such a cause, your success would be hazardous. America, if she fell, would fall like the strong man: she would embrace the pillars of the state, and pull down the constitution with her. The Americans have been wronged: they have been driven to madness by injustice. Will you punish them for the madness you have occasioned? No; let this country be the first to resume its prudence and temper.” He concluded by declaring his opinion, “that the Stamp Act be repealed absolutely, totally, and immediately; and that the reason of the repeal be assigned, that it was founded on an erroneous principle.” But the language of Pitt, on this occasion, was much more palatable to the Americans than to the English, to whom he vainly recommended that rare triumph of wisdom, so hard a science to mankind, well-timed retreat. His auditors prized much more highly the imaginary dignity that was wounded by suggestions of the spirit and resolution of the people with whom they were contending, than the real dignity of generous forbearance in a mischievous and impolitic quarrel. To facilitate the repeal of the Stamp Act, by satisfying or soothing the irritated pride which was roused against such concession, the ministers first introduced a bill “for the

¹ The great Irish orator and patriot, Grattan, used to pronounce this speech superior to any of the orations of Demosthenes.

better securing the dependency of his majesty's dominions in America upon the crown and parliament of Great Britain."

This bill, which was carried without a division in either house, obtained the name of *the Declaratory Act*.¹ It proclaimed that some of the American colonies had unlawfully pretended that the right to tax them resided exclusively in their own domestic assemblies, and that riotous and seditious outrages had been committed by mobs deluded by this opinion; and enacted, declaratively, that the king and parliament had right to make laws "*to bind the colonies and people of America, subjects of the crown of Great Britain, in all cases whatsoever.*" A bill for repealing the Stamp Act was then proposed to the House of Commons. Its preamble varied widely from the suggestion of Pitt, and expressed merely that "the continuance of the said act would be attended with many inconveniences, and may be productive of consequences greatly detrimental to the commercial interests of these kingdoms." The memorial of the American convention was tendered in support of this measure: but the house refused to hearken to the application of a body unknown to the laws and constitution. Very few petitions from America were presented; and those only which were couched in a submissive or moderate strain. But numerous petitions were exhibited from English merchants and manufacturers; and so many facts and circumstances were cited and established, as to render the preamble of the bill perfectly incontrovertible. Yet with all this, and notwithstanding the precaution that had been taken to render the preamble inoffensive to English pride and consonant with English commercial ambition, the bill was violently opposed by the members of the former cabinet, and by their friends and various other persons in both houses, who insisted that to recede at the present juncture from actual taxation, and remain contented with a declaratory assertion of this authority, was virtually to surrender the prerogative of Britain to the force and opposition of America, to encourage faction by success and impunity, and to ensure resistance against the first attempt to give a practical application to the Declaratory Act. The

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Act declaratory of parliamentary power over America.

¹ 6 George III. cap. 12. With similar policy (similar in the pride which it indulged and in the unhappy consequences which it produced) the British cabinet, of which the Duke of Wellington was premier, prefaced its tardy concessions to the catholics of Ireland by an act of insolent rigour which robbed the concessions of almost all their grace. So unfruitful hitherto have been the lessons of history.

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opposers of the repeal, indeed, wandered far beyond this topic, and, with an eagerness to enlarge discussion that contrasted remarkably with their desire only a year before to evade or abridge it, revived in every stage of the proceedings the question of the right of parliament to tax America. Of the friends of the repeal bill, some contented themselves with arguing in support of the undeniable truths expressed in its preamble: others, embracing the invitation to discuss the general question of parliamentary prerogative, insisted, either that this prerogative was sufficiently guarded by the Declaratory Act, or that America was already taxed in a peculiar manner and in the only manner adapted to her peculiar situation, by the commercial restrictions. This last view was supported in substance, though professedly controverted with much nicety of discrimination, by Pitt in the House of Commons, and by Pratt, chief justice of the court of Common Pleas (whom the new ministry had invested with the title of Lord Camden) in the House of Lords. "You have no right," said Pitt, "to tax America. Nevertheless, I assert the authority of this kingdom to be sovereign and supreme, in every circumstance of government and legislation whatsoever. Taxation is no part of the governing or legislative power: the taxes are a voluntary gift and grant of the commons alone. The concurrence of the peers and of the crown is necessary only as a form of law. This house represents the commons of Great Britain. Here we give and grant what is our own: but it is unjust and absurd to suppose that we can give and grant the property of the commons of America. This constitutional right has ever been exercised by the commons of America themselves, represented in their own provincial assemblies: and without it, they would have been slaves. At the same time, let the sovereign authority of legislative and commercial control, always possessed by this country, be asserted in as strong terms as can be devised; and if it were denied, I would not suffer even a nail for a horse-shoe to be manufactured in America. But the Americans do not deny it. We may, and they are willing that we shall bind their trade, confine their manufactures, and exercise every power, except that of taking money out of their pockets without their consent. There I draw the line: there

are the bounds *Quos ultra, citraque, nequit consistere rectum.*" C H A P. I.
 —“ My position is this,” said Lord Camden ; “ and I repeat
 it, and will maintain it to my last hour: taxation and representation are inseparable. This position is founded on the laws of nature. It is more: it is itself an eternal law of nature. For, whatever is a man’s own is absolutely his own. No one has a right to take it from him without his consent. Whoever attempts to do it, commits an injury: whoever does it, commits a robbery.” After debates more violent and protracted than had occurred since the British Revolution, the repeal bill passed the House of Commons at three o’clock of the morning by the votes of 275 against 167 members. Amidst general acclamations, it was soon after carried to the House of Lords by Conway the mover, accompanied by more than 200 members,—a larger concourse than was ever remembered to have accompanied the progress of any former bill. In the upper house, the feebler arguments of its opponents were reinforced by superior influence; and Lords Strange and Bute scrupled not to declare that the private sentiments of the king were adverse to it. Nothing could be more unconstitutional than the promulgation of such intelligence, whether it were true or false. The ministers ascertained by inquiry that it was true:¹ but were neither deterred from prosecuting the measure which they had carried so far, nor prevented from conducting it to a successful issue. The bill, notwithstanding much opposition, and two protests, was carried through the House of Lords; and finally receiving the royal assent, was passed into a law.² The bare prospect of this measure had been hailed with the liveliest joy in London; where the church bells were rung and the houses illuminated as soon as the progress of the bill through the House of Commons was made known. Similar demonstrations of public joy and gratulation attended the final completion of the measure.

1766.

Feb. 22.

March 19.

The Stamp Act repealed.

¹ All the peculiar favourites of the king were strongly opposed to every concession, substantial or apparent, to America. The lords of the bed-chamber, it was reported, and most of the bishops, urged that America should be rather desolated by fire and sword, than pacified by concession. The Duke of Cumberland, the king’s uncle, so famous for his military ravages in Scotland after the battle of Culloden, is said to have supported the same inhuman policy prior to his own death, which occurred on the 31st of October, 1765. In the House of Commons, all the Scottish members, except two, voted against the repeal of the Stamp Act.

² 6 George III. cap. 11.

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In America, where the people had been taught to regard the repeal as a hopeless proposition, the intelligence of its political consummation and actual prevalence produced a transport of mingled surprise, exultation, and gratitude. In the provincial assemblies, it was impossible that even those members who sympathized not in the general flow of enthusiastic sentiment, could decently refuse to unite in the expressions of it suggested by their colleagues: and, among the people at large, many who had more or less deliberately contemplated a perilous and sanguinary conflict, were unfeignedly rejoiced to behold this terrible extremity averted or retarded. Amidst the first emotions of surprise and pleasure, the alarming terms of the Declaratory Act were little heeded. The assembly of Massachusetts presented an address of grateful thanks to the king, in which they declared their apprehension that the Americans had been greatly misrepresented to his majesty, and injuriously reproached with aversion to the *constitutional* supremacy of the British legislature. Thanks were also voted to the royal ministers, and to Lord Camden, Pitt, Colonel Barré, and other individuals who had promoted the repeal or defended the Americans. Similar demonstrations occurred in New Hampshire. The assembly of Virginia voted that a statue of the king should be erected in this province: and in a general meeting of the inhabitants of Philadelphia, it was unanimously resolved “that to demonstrate our zeal to Great Britain, and our gratitude for the repeal of the Stamp Act, each of us will, on the 4th of June next, being the birth-day of our gracious sovereign, dress ourselves in a new suit of the manufactures of England, and give what homespun clothes we have to the poor.” Professions of joy, gratitude, and attachment to Britain, equally loud and warm, and perhaps as sincere and deliberate, resounded through all the other American communities. And yet, even amidst the first warm gush of hope and exultation, was heard the voice of some enlightened or stubborn patriots who accounted the triumph of their countrymen, immoderate, disproportioned, and premature. Christopher Gadsden, of South Carolina, in particular, who had been a delegate from this province to the late convention, and was afterwards distinguished as a civil and military leader in the revolutionary struggle, hesitated not to

assure his friends that the public hopes were fallacious; that a permanent restoration of cordial friendship with Britain was impossible; and that it was madness on the part of America to remit her vigilance, or relax her preparation for a contest which must undoubtedly ensue. His views and sentiments were approved by those to whom they were communicated: and a secret association was formed to watch every suitable opportunity of acting in conformity with them. Mayhew, the Boston preacher, who has already attracted our notice, delivered a sermon in reference to the repeal of the Stamp Act, much more fraught with republican sentiment, than with incitements to loyal or pacific consideration. "Having been initiated in youth," said this political and polemical divine, "in the doctrines of civil liberty, as they were taught by such men as Plato, Demosthenes, Cicero, and other renowned persons among the ancients, and such as Sidney, Milton, Locke, and Hoadley, among the moderns,—I liked them: they seemed rational. And having learned from the holy scriptures that wise, brave, and virtuous men were always friends to liberty; *that God gave the Israelites a king in his anger, because they had not sense and virtue enough to like a free commonwealth*, and that liberty always flourishes where the Spirit of the Lord is imparted,—this made me conclude that freedom was a great blessing."¹

Thus ended the first act of that grand historic drama, the American Revolution. That it was the first, makes no slight addition to its importance. It was on that account the more fitted to convey a lesson which Britain might have seasonably and advantageously appropriated; as it showed thus early, with what determined spirit the Americans cherished the principles of liberty, in unison with their still remaining attachment to the parent state and her authority and institutions. The folly which she committed in totally neglecting this lesson, may be palliated, perhaps, by the consideration of those efforts which were made both by friends and by enemies of the Americans to disguise its real import, and of the fluctuating state of the British cabinet at this period, which was very unfavourable to deliberate and consistent councils.

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1765 and for 1766. Franklin's Memoirs. Belknap. Gordon. Burk's Virginia. Ramsay. Bradford. Eliot. Rogers.

CHAPTER II.

Sentiments of the Americans.— Leading Politicians in America — Randolph — Jefferson — Adams — Hancock — Rutledge, and others.— Renewed collision between British prerogative and American liberty. — New York resists the Act for quartering troops. — Acts of Parliament taxing tea and other commodities in America — and suspending the Legislature of New York. — Policy of France. — Progress of American discontent. — Circular Letter of the Massachusetts Assembly. — Governor Bernard's Misrepresentations. — Royal Censure of the Massachusetts Assembly. — Riot at Boston. — Firmness — and Dissolution of the Massachusetts Assembly. — Convention in Massachusetts. — Occupation of Boston by British troops. — Violence of the British Parliament. — Resolutions of the Virginian Assembly — and concurrence of the other provinces. — Remonstrance against British troops in Massachusetts. — Miscellaneous transactions — Dr. Witherspoon — Dartmouth College — Methodism in America — Origin of Kentucky — Daniel Boone.

BOOK THE controversy with regard to the Stamp Act ended as
 XI. some previous disputes between Britain and America had
 1766. done, by an adjustment ill calculated to afford lasting satisfaction to either country, and leaving each in possession of pretensions denied by the other. It differed, indeed, from preceding disputes, in this important circumstance which was calculated to enhance the mischief of its imperfect adjustment, that instead of having been waged merely between a particular British cabinet or board of trade and a single American province, it had occupied the attention and aroused the interest of the great body of the people both in Britain and America. If Britain repealed the Stamp Act, it was not till after America had disobeyed it : and if she proclaimed by the Declaratory Act her pretension to the prerogative of taxing America, this was no more than the Stamp Act had already assumed and the resistance of America had practically refuted. Many persons in America considered the Declaratory Act as a mere empty homage to British pride, intended not to afford a handle for renewing the dispute but to disguise the mortification of defeat ; and some proclaimed this conviction with a

contemptuous openness that savoured more of hardihood than of wisdom or moderation. The parliament had authoritatively condemned the independent sentiments expressed by the Americans, and the actual violence with which these sentiments had been supported: but the Americans were sensible that their language and conduct had been substantially successful, and had rendered the Stamp Act inefficacious long before its formal repeal. Britain had ultimately desisted from enforcing this act for reasons, real or pretended, of mercantile convenience: but America had first resisted and prevented its enforcement, on totally different grounds. Some persons might be interested to maintain, and some might be willing to believe that no actual resistance had been offered to the power of Britain, except by the transient rage of the poorest and most ignorant inhabitants of America: but no pretext or protestation could disguise the grand fact that a British statute had been deliberately disobeyed and rendered quite ineffectual in the scene of its application; and that during the whole period of the subsistence of the Stamp Act, not a sheet of stamped paper had been employed in America. The benefit conferred by the repeal of this statute, was rather the deliverance from an impending and dangerous civil war, than the removal of an actual burden. And hence, as well as for other reasons, the joy produced in America by the repeal was much more lively than lasting. Pitt's remarkable words, "I rejoice that America has resisted," produced a far deeper and more permanent impression,¹ which coincided with the reflection speedily arising, that Britain by the Declaratory Act had reserved to herself a pretext for renewing the quarrel at the first convenient opportunity, and had affixed an opprobrious stigma on the exertions to which America was substan-

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¹ Yet the effect of this impression on the Americans was very much overvalued in England; where even the author of the celebrated *Letters of Junius* did not scruple to designate Pitt and Camden as the authors of American resistance. "Their declaration," says the first of these letters which appeared in January, 1769, "gave spirit and argument to the colonies; and while, perhaps, they meant no more than the ruin of a minister, they in effect divided one-half of the empire from the other." Junius ascribes Pitt's vehement opposition to the Stamp Act, to a desire of driving Grenville from office. But Grenville had ceased to be minister before Pitt's opposition was exerted. Facts and dates are less entertaining but often more instructive than the most ingenious theories. Resistance was practised in America before it was defended in England.

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tially beholden, and to which she must again, in all probability, at no distant period be indebted for a similar deliverance. Besides, although the grievance of the commercial restrictions had been latterly, for politic reasons, but little insisted on by the Americans, the discontent occasioned by the aggravated pressure of these restrictions, had taken a very deep and wide root, and had greatly increased the acrimony with which the dispute respecting the Stamp Act had been conducted. Much irritation kindled by the commercial restrictions was vented in abuse of the Stamp Act: and this measure, consequently, in addition to its own intrinsic importance, acquired an adventitious interest which in the eyes of considerate persons, did not long survive its repeal. As the excitement produced by the sudden and unexpected cessation of peril subsided, the consideration arose that the repeal of an act which the Americans by their own spirit had previously rendered inoperative, was beneficial only to the resident population of Britain, by tending to restore the interrupted importation of British manufactures. All of pleasurable retrospect that was left for the Americans, was the exulting consciousness of the spirit which they had exerted, and which if a British parliament had condemned, at least Pitt and Camden had applauded: and this spirit, mingling with the discontent occasioned by the commercial restrictions, gave to the general current of sentiment and opinion throughout America, a bias very far from propitious to the authority of Great Britain.

June.

The intelligence of the Declaratory Act and the Act of Repeal, was followed by a circular letter from secretary Conway to the American governors, in which "the lenity and tenderness, the moderation and forbearance of the parliament towards the colonies" were celebrated in strains which touched no responsive chord in the bosoms of the Americans, who were farther required to show "their respectful gratitude and cheerful obedience in return for such a signal display of indulgence and affection." This letter also transmitted a resolution which had been passed by the British Parliament, adjudging "that those persons who had suffered any injury or damage in consequence of their assisting to execute the late act, should be compensated by the colonies in which such

injuries were sustained.” In conformity with this resolution, Hutchinson and his fellow-sufferers, whose solicitations to the British government had procured it, claimed compensation for their losses from the assembly of Massachusetts; and the governor in a speech of the most dictatorial and unconciliating strain, recommended that a grant of public money should forthwith be made for this purpose. It seemed as if Bernard, in the fervour of his zeal for British dignity, sought to repudiate every semblance of approach to courtesy or condescension towards the colonists, both by the insolent terms in which he alluded to the retraction of British policy, and by the invidious topics which he mixed with the demands for compensation. With censure equally haughty and unconstitutional, he rated the assembly for not having included a single officer of the crown in their recent election of provincial councillors — a reprimand which they instantly answered in terms of mingled resentment and disdain. The justice of the demand of compensation preferred by Hutchinson and the other sufferers from the riots, was unquestionable: for every community is bound to protect its members from lawless violence, and to indemnify them for the injuries which they may sustain from the inefficiency of its police to afford such protection. But the assembly, inspired with anger and scorn by the officious insolence and folly of the governor, indulged on the present occasion the same temper that had recently prevailed in the British nation and parliament, and regarded with disgust an act of justice prescribed to them in a tone which seemed to encroach upon their dignity. To manifest their independence and gratify the people, they first refused any grant at all; though they declared, doubtless with little sincerity, their purpose to discover the rioters and cause *them* to make restitution for the damage they had done: and afterwards on a renewed and more peremptory requisition from the governor, postponed the consideration of it, till they had consulted their constituents. Finally, having gratified their pride at some expense of justice, they performed, as a sacrifice to generosity, the act which from the first they must have known to be inevitable; and granted a liberal compensation by a bill which, however, was passed only by a small majority, and in which farther homage was rendered to popu-

BOOK lar feeling by a clause assuring complete indemnity and
 XI. oblivion to all persons who had been concerned in the riots.
 1766. The temper by which they were actuated was significantly
 disclosed by a resolution which they passed, "that it was
 the indispensable duty of the sufferers to have applied first to
 the government *here*, instead of to the government *at home*." Though the bill was affirmed by the governor, its terms, and especially the provision of indemnity to the rioters, gave much offence to the British court. It was subsequently annulled by the king: but the annulment received little notice, and produced no effect. Hutchinson was so far from making any open objection to accept the sum awarded to him, as a generous gift, instead of a just retribution, that after the bill was passed, he desired leave to express his grateful thanks for it to the assembly. The parliamentary injunction of compensation to the persons who had suffered from the riots, was rendered still farther unpopular by mean and rapacious attempts of individuals to take unjust advantage of it. Messervé, in particular, who had resigned the office of distributor of stamps in New Hampshire, found the approbation of his fellow-citizens a reward too unsubstantial for his appetite; and claimed from the assembly of this province a pecuniary compensation for his losses. But the assembly, finding that he had lost nothing but his office, disallowed his claim; and he forthwith became a partizan of the British court, which rewarded him with an appointment in England.¹

Among other important consequences which resulted from the Stamp Act quarrel and the dangerous extremity to which it had been pushed, were, that it paved the way to a permanent union of the public councils and policy of all the American states; and, in every one of them, showed to the people the men who were best fitted to be their leaders, and on whose genius, courage, and patriotism, they might securely rely. When a federal league between the provinces was proposed in the year 1754, the origination of this project with the British government was sufficient to inspire the Americans with a suspicious aversion to it, which combined with and was aided by the jealousies and distractions that prevailed among

¹ Belknap. Bradford. Hutchinson. Gordon. Pitkin. Ann. Reg. for 1766.

themselves. But during the late quarrel, their mutual jealousies had been swallowed up in the sense of common interest and danger; and they saw that purposes of union had been promoted by all the most considerate as well as the most animated assertors of American liberty, and thwarted only by the partizans of British prerogative. The quarrel had been pushed so far, and America had so daringly rebelled, that for some time a revolutionary war was contemplated by many, and the most violent and vindictive infliction of British force expected by all. This was a time that tried men's souls, and called forth those master spirits which in ordinary seasons have no perceptible existence, because no appropriate sphere of action. Hitherto the great bulk of the inhabitants of America had confined the exertion of their active and reflective powers to the cultivation of their territorial resources, and the improvement of their domestic accommodations: they had, indeed, often jealously watched and sometimes boldly questioned particular restraints imposed on them by the parent state: but, in the main, they submitted or deemed that they submitted peaceably to her guidance and authority; and so far their minds were accommodated to a state of national pupillage. But now all at once was the restraint of British authority suspended: all the American communities were for the first time united in one common purpose and course of action which arrayed them in open defiance of the parent state: and hopes the most elevated and ambitious, dangers at once awful and animating, and projects vast, unbounded, and interesting, combined to inflame the ardour, to rouse and collect the fortitude, and to nourish and elicit the genius and capacity of the American people. Republican governments and democratical interests, especially in the beginning of a revolutionary controversy with opposite principles, have a wonderful influence in uniting ambition with virtue, and in stimulating and diffusing the energy of their partizans. A rich and powerful spring of oratory, at once the fruit and the instrument of political agitation and republican sentiment, now broke forth in America. The orators, formed by the occasion, turned the occasion to their account. Their glowing language awakened in the bosoms of their countrymen feelings long and deeply cherished, and which rushed

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into light and life from the obscurity and silence to which they had been hitherto condemned, with the vigour of maturity and the vivacity of fresh existence.

The most remarkable of the political leaders and orators who sprung up at this period, were natives of Virginia, Massachusetts and South Carolina. In Virginia there were particularly distinguished, after Patrick Henry whom we have already repeatedly noticed, and who held the first place as a popular champion and favourite, Edmund Pendleton, a graceful and persuasive speaker, a subtle and dexterous politician, energetic and indefatigable in the conduct of business; Richard Bland, celebrated for the extent and accuracy of his knowledge, unrivalled among his contemporaries as a logician, and who published this year an Inquiry into the Rights of the British Colonies, in which the recent claims of America were defended with much cogency of reasoning; George Wythe, not more admired for the strength of his capacity and the elegance of his wit, than respected for the simplicity and integrity of his character; Peyton Randolph, whose high repute and influence with his countrymen, unaided by the captivation of eloquence, was founded on qualities more honourable both to him and to them, the solid powers of his understanding, and the sterling virtues of his heart; and Richard Henry Lee, one of the most accomplished scholars and orators in America, and who was commonly styled the Virginian Cicero. Washington calmly but firmly espoused the cause of his native country in opposition to the pretensions of the British government: nor was there an individual more respected in Virginia, or more generally known and esteemed by all America than himself; but, devoid of oratorical powers, tranquil, sedate, prudent, dignified, and reserved, he was little qualified by genius or habit, to make a brilliant figure as a provincial politician, and waited the development of a grander scene of counsel and action, more adapted to the illustration of his majestic wisdom and superior sense. Various other individuals who have gained renown as defenders of the liberty and founders of the independence of America, began, shortly after this period, to be distinguished in the list of Virginian politicians; of whom the most remarkable was Thomas Jefferson, pre-eminent as a statesman, scholar, and philosopher;

a forceful, perspicuous, and elegant writer; an intrepid and enterprising patriot, and an ardent and inflexible assertor of republican sentiments, and the principles of purest democracy. From the very dawn of the controversy between Britain and America, Jefferson and his friend and patron Wythe had outstripped the political views of most of the cotemporary American patriots, and embraced the doctrine which ascribed indeed to the crown some prerogative, but denied to the parliament any degree or species of legitimate control over America. Arthur, the brother of Richard Henry Lee, and afterwards ambassador from America to France, was at this time pursuing the study of the law in London, but more actively engaged, as a gratuitous coadjutor of Dr. Franklin, in watching the measures of the British government; and rendered important service to his countrymen by transmitting early intelligence of the ministerial plans and purposes.

In Massachusetts at this period, the most distinguished popular leaders and champions of the cause of America, were James Otis, who has already engaged our observation; Samuel Adams, John Hancock, Thomas Cushing, and James Bowdoin, merchants; Samuel Cooper a clergyman; Josiah Quincy a lawyer; and John Winthrop professor of mathematics in Harvard college. Samuel Adams was one of the most perfect models of disinterested patriotism, and of republican genius and character in all its austerity and simplicity, that any age or country has ever produced. At college, in the year 1743, he made an early display of those political sentiments which he cherished through life, by maintaining in the thesis which gained him his literary degree, that "it is lawful to resist the supreme magistrate, if the commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved." A sincere and devout puritan in religion, grave in his manners, pure in his morals, simple, frugal, and unambitious in his tastes, habits, and desires; zealously and incorruptibly devoted to the defence of American liberty, and the improvement of American character; endowed with a strong manly understanding, a capacity of patient and intense application which no labour could exhaust, and a calm and determined courage which no danger could daunt, and no disaster depress; he rendered his virtues more efficacious by the instrumentality of great powers of reasoning and

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eloquence; and altogether supported a part and exhibited a character of which every description even the most frigid that has been preserved, wears the air of panegyric. He defended the liberty of his countrymen against the tyranny of England, and their religious principles against the impious sophistry of Paine. Poor, without desiring to be rich, he subsequently filled the first offices in the state without making the slightest augmentation to his fortune; and after an active, useful, and illustrious life, in which all the interests of the individual were merged in public care and concernment, he died without obtaining or desiring any other reward than the consciousness of virtue and integrity, the contemplation of his country's happiness and the respect and veneration of his fellow citizens. It has been censoriously remarked of him by the severer critics of his history,—and the censure is the more interesting from the rarity of its application to the great men of modern times,—that his character was superior to his genius, and that his mind was much more elevated and firm than liberal and expansive. In all his sentiments, religious and political, no doubt, there appeared some tincture of those peculiar principles and qualities which had formed the original and distinctive character of the people of New England; and he was much more impressed with the worth and piety, than sensible of or adverse to the narrow bigotry and rigid severity of his provincial ancestors. Hancock differed widely from Adams in manners, character, and condition. He was possessed of an ample fortune, and maintained a splendid equipage; but while he indulged a gay disposition in elegant and expensive pleasures, he manifested a generous liberality in the most munificent contributions to every charitable and patriotic purpose: insomuch that his fellow-citizens declared of him that he plainly preferred their favour to great riches, and sunk his fortune in the cause of his country. Courteous and graceful in his address, eager and enthusiastic in his disposition, endowed with a prompt and lively eloquence, which was supported by considerable abilities, though by no means united with brilliant genius or commanding capacity, he embraced the popular cause with the most vehement ardour, and leaving to more philosophical patriots the guardianship of public virtue and the control of popular licence, he devoted himself

exclusively to the promotion of whatever objects tended immediately to gratify the wishes of the majority of the people. He continued to hope for a reconciliation with Britain much longer than Adams, who, after the promulgation of the Stamp Act, neither expected nor desired such an issue; but when, in consequence of the final rupture between the two countries, and the overthrow of regal dominion in America, a republican constitution was to be composed,—Adams showed himself the more desirous to secure an energetic government, while Hancock preferably advocated an unbounded scope to democratical principle and popular freedom. Adams was called the *Cato*, and Hancock the *Lucullus* of New England. Among the first generations of the inhabitants of this country, the character of Adams, in competition with that of Hancock, would have carried almost all the suffrages of their fellow-citizens; and even at no distant date retrospective from the present epoch, the manners of Hancock would have been rather tolerated and pardoned, than generally approved. But a change gradually arising in the taste and opinion of the public, had latterly been so widely developed, that Hancock was now by far the most popular character in Massachusetts. He was indeed the idol of the great mass of the people, and openly preferred to Adams by all but a small minority of the community, consisting of staunch puritans and stern republicans. Cushing was much less distinguished by energy or talent, than by his descent from a family renowned, in New England, for ardent piety and liberal politics. He possessed respectable, though by no means splendid or even eminent abilities; and, being long the speaker of the assembly of Massachusetts, obtained in England, from the number of bold, ingenious, and able compositions, to which his name was officially subscribed, a reputation very disproportioned in importance to that which he possessed in America,—where his countrymen generally regarded him, rather as an honest and well-meaning, than an able, or even ardent friend of American liberty.¹ Bowdoin, one of the wealthiest persons in Massachusetts, was also a man of great information and ability,

¹ Dr. Johnson, in his Pamphlet entitled *Taxation no Tyranny*, which was revised by Lord North, remarks that “One object of the Americans is said to be to adorn the brows of Mr. Cushing with a diadem.”

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1766. regulated by strong good sense; liberal, honourable, and upright; a prudent and moderate, but firm and consistent patriot. Cooper was a pious, eloquent, and accomplished man, who was first prompted to unite the character of a politician with the office of a minister of the gospel, by the tidings of the Stamp Act, which suggested to him, he declared, that tyranny was opposed not more to civil than to religious liberty. From that period he took an active part in behalf of the liberties of his country, both as a contributor of political essays to the periodical publications of Boston, and as a correspondent of Dr. Franklin. He was eminent as a scholar, and ardent as a patron and coadjutor of every society instituted for the advancement of learning, liberty, piety, or virtue; and doubtless, his previous character as a divine contributed to promote the efficacy of his exertions as a politician. Quincy a distinguished lawyer and orator, the descendant of one of those English barons who had extorted from King John the signature of *Magna Charta*, showed that the spirit displayed by his ancestor at Runnemede had been transmitted to him, unimpaired by the eclipse of family grandeur and the lapse of five centuries. He was the proto-martyr of American liberty, in defence of which, both with his tongue and pen, he exerted an energy so disproportioned to his bodily strength, as to occasion his death some time previous to the declaration of American independence.¹ Winthrop, who inherited one of the most venerable names in New England, revived its ancient honour and still farther embellished it by the highest attainments in science and literature, by a character adorned with religion and virtue, and by a firm and courageous devotion to the liberty of his country. It was in the present year that the assembly of Massachusetts, whether with a view of promoting or of gratifying the popular interest in its proceedings, enacted a resolution, which was instantly executed, that its debates should be open to the public, and that a gallery should be erected for the accommodation of the audience. The orators of the popular party derived new courage and animation from the looks of their listening countrymen, who, in turn, were

¹ He died 27th April, 1775.

inspired with the generous ardour which their presence had promoted. Eloquence, like music, is often more powerful than reason and honour in imparting the height of noblest temper to human courage and resolution.

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In South Carolina, among many bold and able champions of their country's rights, the most notable were John Rutledge, a man gifted with extraordinary powers of mind—prompt, penetrating, energetic, and decisive; and, in oratory, the rival, or, as some accounted, the superior of Patrick Henry; Christopher Gadsden a frank, fearless, intrepid, upright,¹ and determined republican; Henry Laurens a zealous patriot and enlightened politician, afterwards highly distinguished by the dignity which he achieved, and the talent and fortitude which he exerted in the service of America; Edward Rutledge the brother of John, and whose eloquence was as graceful and insinuating as his brother's was impetuous and commanding; and David Ramsay a learned and ingenious man, sincerely religious, austere moral, and warmly patriotic, a forcible speaker, and an elegant writer. At an early stage of the controversy with Britain, Ramsay was an advocate for the immediate assertion of American independence; and after bravely and ably contributing to the attainment of this object, he related the struggle by which it was won, in one of the best and most impartial histories that have been composed of the revolutionary war.²

Rutledge
and others.

A few months after the repeal of the Stamp Act, there occurred a change in the composition of the British cabinet, which excited much surprise and regret among the liberal politicians of England, and some inquietude in America. The Marquis of Rockingham and several of his whig colleagues were dismissed from their employments, and succeeded by the Duke of Grafton a tory, who was placed at the head of the administration,—Charles Townsend one of the promoters of the Stamp Act, who was appointed chancellor of the exchequer,—

July 30.

¹ When the Revolutionary war broke out, Governor Boone, of South Carolina, observed, "God knows how this unhappy contest will end, or what the popular leaders of South Carolina can be aiming at—but Gadsden I know to be an honest man—he means well."

² Wirt, § 2. Campbell's Virginia, Appendix. Eliot. Rogers. Bradford. Gordon. Holmes. Jefferson's Notes. Query 23. Garden's Anecdotes of the American Revolution. Jefferson's Memoirs and Correspondence.

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ber.

Lord Shelburne, who as secretary of state filled the department to which the management of American affairs peculiarly belonged ;—Lord Camden who was appointed lord chancellor,—and Pitt now created Earl of Chatham, who accepted the office of lord privy seal. The two latter appointments greatly displeased the whigs and popular party in England, who beheld with disgust such men as Camden and Pitt (or, as he must now be called, Lord Chatham) contribute to strengthen a ministry raised on the downfall of Rockingham and his patriot friends. They were calculated, however, to give pleasure to the Americans, and to balance the apprehensions excited by the elevation of Townsend : and their tranquillizing influence in this quarter was aided by the letters of the provincial agents at London who reported that Lord Shelburne had expressed to them a sincere regard for America, and desired them to assure their constituents that they had nothing to fear from the present administration. Whatever hopes might have been derived from these circumstances, were completely disappointed. Lord Chatham, during almost the whole period of his continuance in office,¹ was disabled by ill health from attending to business : he had little or no influence with his colleagues, who were farther disunited among themselves ; and he reaped nothing more from his second elevation to ministerial dignity, than the discredit of forming part of an administration which acted in direct opposition to the policy which he had advocated, and resumed the measures which he had most strongly condemned.²

Though the Stamp Act was repealed, the Americans still continued to manifest resentment against its promoters and abettors. Every dignity and advantage that popular favour or suffrage could bestow, was conferred on those who had signalized themselves by the zeal or ability of their opposition to it ; and the reproach, even when unfounded, of being one of its partizans, was enough to blast any man's character and obstruct the success of any measure which he supported. Anniversary processions and other ceremonies, commemorative of the Stamp Act, were instituted : but all had triumphant

¹ He continued to hold the Privy Seal till October, 1768.

² Ann. Reg. for 1766. Hutchinson. Franklin's Correspondence.

reference to periods and particulars of American resistance, C H A P. without the slightest symptom of thankful allusion to British II. repeal. Fitch the Governor of Connecticut, had shown a 1766. disposition to comply with the Stamp Act; for which, at the annual election of their magistrates, his fellow-citizens now punished him by deprivation of the office to which he would otherwise have been re-appointed. Pitkin was in the present year elected governor, and Trumbull lieutenant-governor of this province, by the votes of all the inhabitants except the adherents of the church of England, who unanimously supported Fitch, and thereby rendered both themselves and their favourite ecclesiastical institution highly obnoxious to the popular party in America. About ten years after, Pitkin was succeeded in office by his present deputy Trumbull, a descendant of the earliest colonists of New England, a man universally revered for his piety, wisdom, uprightness, and patriotism, and who with distinguished prudence, firmness, and ability, occupied the helm of affairs in his native province during all the agitations and convulsions that ensued from this critical period till the year 1783, when age and infirmity at length compelled him to decline any longer to administer the government of Connecticut.¹

The renewal of disputes between Britain and America, was occasioned partly by the operation of a measure devised by the same cabinet from which the Stamp Act had emanated, and partly by new measures embraced by the present administration. Nearly at the same time, there occurred in both countries (so ripe were both for quarrel) transactions calculated to bring again the prerogative of the parent state into collision with the rights which her colonies possessed or pretended. The first symptoms of renewed controversy arose from the act of parliament which we have remarked in 1764, respecting the quarters and accommodations to be supplied to British troops

Renewed
collision
between
British
prerogative
and Ame-
rican li-
berty.

¹ Gordon. Eliot. Chastelleux, the French traveller, thus describes Governor Trumbull in the 70th year of his age:—"He is governor *par excellence*; for he has been so fifteen years without intermission; and equally possessing the public esteem during the subsistence and after the overthrow of the British authority. His whole life is devoted to business, which he passionately loves, whether important or not: or rather, in his eyes, there is none of the latter description. He has all the simplicity in his dress, all the importance, and even all the pedantry becoming the great magistrate of a small republic. He brought to my mind the burgomasters of Holland, the Heinsiuses and the Barneveldts."

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 1766. stationed in America. In the close of the present year, several companies of royal artillery arrived in the harbour of Boston; and it was rumoured that more were soon to follow. The provincial assembly being at this time adjourned, the governor by his own authority directed that provision should be made for the accommodation of the troops at the expense of the province: an assumption of power, which, the assembly was
 1767. no sooner convoked than it called him to account for. He
 January. answered by pleading the necessity of the case, and referring to the act of parliament whose requirement he had carried into effect at a time when the assembly, from the suspension of its functions, was incapable of demonstrating the necessary obedience. But this answer was by no means satisfactory to the assembly, who perceived that the enforcement of such a parliamentary requisition, without their concurrence, was an exertion of the very authority against which they had contended in their resistance to the Stamp Act. They warmly protested that with them alone, and not with the executive magistrate, resided the power of raising and appropriating supplies for public service; and that on any other supposition, the governor might load the province with an intolerable expense which the assembly must afterwards provide the means of defraying, even though they should utterly disapprove its object and purpose. The general discontent was much increased by the prevalence of a report that more troops were soon to arrive; and the assembly demanded of Bernard if these tidings were authentic. He answered that he had received no official intelligence that warranted the public alarm: but it was suspected at the time, and ascertained not long after, that he himself had urgently solicited a numerous reinforcement of troops from the British ministry, and had received private information that his desire would be complied with. In the course of the summer, a small addition was made to the troops which had previously arrived: and on this occasion, Bernard applied directly to the assembly to make provision for their support in the castle where they were quartered. The assembly referred this application to a committee: and finally, after several days' deliberation, resolved "that such provision be made for the troops, while they remain here, as has been *heretofore usually* made for his majesty's

regular troops, when *occasionally* in the province.” But it was at New York, that the operation of the act for quartering troops produced the most important consequences, and indeed provoked a direct impugnation of the authority of parliament. The assembly of this province had yielded a ready obedience to the parliamentary resolutions for indemnifying the sufferers by the riots, and passed a bill for this purpose in the preceding year, without any of the scruples or delays by which Massachusetts had thought proper to vindicate her dignity. But when they were now required by the new governor Sir Henry Moore to make provision for executing the act of parliament respecting the quartering of British troops, they firmly refused to comply: signifying in an address which they presented to the governor, “that according to the construction put upon the act of parliament here, it is required that all the forces which shall at any time enter this colony, shall be quartered during the whole year in a very unusual and expensive manner: that by marching several regiments into the colony, this expense would be rendered insupportably heavy; and that we cannot, therefore, consistently with our duty to our constituents, put it in the power of any person (whatever confidence we may have in his prudence and integrity) to lay such a burden on them.”¹ Thus again was the prerogative of the parent state deliberately resisted, and an act of parliament openly repudiated and disobeyed by an American province and its domestic government.

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New York
resists the
act for
quartering
troops.

Meanwhile, the project of taxing America by act of parliament had been resumed by the British cabinet, and definitively embraced, notwithstanding the adverse opinions of Chatham, Camden, and Conway, who continued to strengthen by their adherence an administration which they were totally unable to guide by their councils. A great change had already taken place in the opinion and temper of the parliament, —where the repeal of the Stamp Act was now as generally regretted as the act itself had been condemned only a year before. All the courtiers protested that the king was in a humiliated state, and urged Townsend the chancellor of the exchequer, to remember the language which he had formerly

¹ Bradford. Hutchinson. Gordon.

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Act of par-
liament
taxing Tea
and other
commodi-
ties in
America—

held, and to retrieve the dignity of the crown by some financial measure that would give a practical effect to the Declaratory Act.¹ A bill was accordingly introduced into the House of Commons by Townsend, imposing duties on all glass, lead, painters' colours, tea, and paper, imported into the American provinces. In the preamble of the bill, it was declared, that "it is expedient that a revenue should be raised in his majesty's dominions in America, for making a more certain and adequate provision for defraying the charge of the administration of justice and the support of civil government, in those provinces where it shall be found necessary; and towards farther defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the said dominions." By one clause in the bill, the king was empowered to establish, by sign manual, a general *civil list*, in every province of North America, to an indefinite extent, with salaries, pensions, and appointments to an unlimited amount: and it was provided, that after liquidation of the contents of the civil list, the residue of the revenue to be derived from America should abide the disposal of the British parliament. This bill met with hardly the shadow of opposition in parliament, where probably some members chose to regard it as a commercial regulation, and others more or less willingly acknowledged that any discussion of its principle was precluded by the terms of the Declaratory Act. Richard Jackson, a member of the House of Commons, opposed the clause authorising a civil list. Its object, he said, was to render all the public officers and magistrates in America independent of the people: and although he admitted that the judges ought to be independent both of the people and the crown, yet he insisted that the dependence of the governors upon the provincial assemblies was just and expedient, as the only safeguard which the colonists possessed against the perversion or abuse of the executive power. The royal governors sent to America, he observed, were often needy, unprincipled men, and always dependent for the duration of their functions on the pleasure of the crown; and great mischief and injustice would arise from rendering them totally independent of the

¹ "America," says a warm partizan of the British government, "was at this time in such a state, that it would have been good policy to abstain from farther taxes of any kind." Hutchinson.

people. Only one other member of the House supported Jackson in this objection : and without farther discussion or obstruction, the bill was passed into a law.¹ Edmund Burke has asserted, and it seems probable that Townsend expected that this act would be rendered palatable, or at least far less unpalatable than the Stamp Act, to the Americans, by the considerations that the revenue which it assigned was derived from external or port duties to which they had been represented as willing to submit, and that those duties were by no means heavy, and, excepting the tax upon tea, were not imposed on any of the grand articles of commerce. We shall find, indeed, that a very different impression from what Townsend anticipated was actually produced by the first of these considerations : but before it had time to operate at all, any advantage which might have been gained from it, or from the other extenuating suggestions, was more than counterbalanced by the cotemporary proceedings of the parliament with regard to America, and which unhappily combined to inflame the discontent, great or small, which the measure we have remarked was of itself calculated to awaken. For, to insure the payment of the new taxes, as well as to promote a stricter execution of all the trade laws, an act was passed immediately after, for establishing at Boston a board of commissioners of the customs for America,—an establishment which, even independently of the new imposts with which it was associated, would have been regarded with aversion by the colonists. And while these measures were in progress through the houses of parliament, another and still more offensive exertion of British authority was elicited by the tidings that now arrived of the refusal of the New York assembly to make provision for the accommodation of British troops within their provincial territory. The wrathful impatience provoked by this intelligence was industriously fomented by Grenville and his adherents, who declaimed in passionate and yet plausible strains on the progress of disobedience in America, where the people were now encouraged, by their recent triumph over the Stamp Act, to resist another parliamentary measure against which they had not even used the ceremony of petitioning.

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¹ Stat. 7 George III. cap. 46.

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and sus-
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New York.

To pacify the clamour which was raised on this occasion, the ministers introduced into parliament an act,¹ which was instantly passed, and which prohibited the assembly of New York from exercising any of the functions of legislation till they complied with the prior act for providing quarters and accommodations to his majesty's troops. No measure could have been devised more calculated to spread alarm throughout America, and rekindle the flames of the Stamp Act controversy. It was a blow which rendered their domestic legislation—the privilege most deeply cherished by the colonists, and for which they had recently contended with so much warmth, resolution, and unanimity,—insecure and precarious; at once depriving New York of this advantage, and proclaiming, by inevitable inference, that every colonial assembly in America depended for its existence on the satisfaction which its conduct might afford to the royal ministers and the British parliament, and was liable to be suspended or abolished by an exertion of parliamentary power. And thus, by a series of measures which, occurring at the same time, seemed but kindred branches of one scheme of policy, and mutually promoted the offensive impressions which they were severally fitted to produce, did Britain at once revive and extend every cause of quarrel, jealousy, and irritation, that had arisen between herself and her American colonies. By the act which we have last remarked, she assumed and exemplified the power of depriving them of that institution behind which they had shielded themselves from the interference of parliament with their internal taxation. By the establishment of a board of customs in America, she announced a more rigid execution of the trade laws. By the new duties which she imposed under the guise of external taxes, she tempted the colonists to question, as, indeed, some of them had already done, the competency of subjecting them even to external taxation by parliament: and by the establishment of the civil list, she authoritatively determined in her own favour, a point which after many disputes with the colonists, she had formerly abandoned to them;² and deprived them of the control

¹ Stat. 7 George III. cap. 59.

² See *ante*, Book VIII. chap. ii.

which they had so long exercised over their provincial governors and magistrates. CHAP. II.

It is strange that the British government should not have been apprehensive of the great and increasing danger of the predicament in which its colonial dominion was involved by these public and protracted disputes with the Americans. Every other nation in the world was tempted to desire the downfall of the British ascendancy in America, as involving the destruction of that system of monopoly by which Britain reserved, or at least attempted to reserve the whole of the American trade to herself. So far, the interests of America manifestly converged with those of many powerful states in opposition to British authority: and if the Americans were provoked to vindicate those interests by force of arms, it might easily be conjectured that they would not be left to wage the conflict unassisted by nations which had so deep a stake in its issue. The principles of good faith and honour, indeed, might operate more or less forcibly to deter other sovereign states in amity or at peace with the British monarch, from seducing or encouraging his subjects to revolt: but the emergent probability of such revolt, and the near prospect of its collateral advantages, was but too likely to overpower those self-denying considerations. All the late measures which had been adopted for a stricter enforcement of the trade laws, operated to the prejudice not merely of America but of every nation that was restrained from trading with her; drew the bands of common interest between them and her closer than before; and increased the earnest expectation and attention with which they regarded her conduct, and watched the progress of the disputes between her and her parent state. France, besides partaking the general interest of commercial nations, in opposition to the British colonial empire and monopoly, was additionally incited to desire the revolt of America as an event that would avenge or at least counterbalance the loss of Canada, and divest Britain of that powerful branch of her naval force which America was likely to supply, and which in any future war that might arise would render the insular colonies of the French an easy conquest. As France was induced by stronger motives than any other European nation, to desire the separation of America from

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Britain, so was she less deterred by honourable scruples from attempting to promote it. Hardly a month after the last acts of parliament which we have remarked had been passed, the French ambassador at London addressed himself to Dr. Franklin in terms that discovered to this acute politician the wish of the French court to inflame the quarrel between Britain and America. But Franklin, though sincerely attached to the interests of his countrymen, still cherished the hope that the quarrel might be accommodated, and the grandeur of the British empire maintained in consistence with the preservation of American liberty. His son was at this time the royal governor of New Jersey: he himself was the post-master-general of America; and so favourably was he regarded at the British court, that it was proposed, not long after, as he himself has related, to appoint him Under-Secretary of State for American affairs. It was also reported to him, and received with the credit willingly given to so flattering a communication, that the king himself had expressed a high regard for his character. At the present period and for some time after, he entertained a very favourable opinion of George the Third, whom in letters to his friends in America, he described as “the best king that any nation was ever blessed with;” and he had not yet survived the hostile feelings and views which he once cherished against France. His sentiments underwent at a later epoch a very great change; but as yet though at bottom the determined friend of America, he entertained as much respect and affection for Britain and her institutions and authority, as could consist with that preponderating attachment. Convinced that every degree of liberty which he deemed essential to human welfare and happiness *must* finally be secured to America, whether separate from or connected with the main trunk of the British empire, he was desirous to restrain his countrymen from precipitating their dispute with the parent state to an extremity; and blamed their violence in his letters to America, while he endeavoured to palliate or disguise it in his representations to the statesmen and authorities of England. He seems on the present occasion neither to have utterly extinguished the hopes nor to have encouraged a full disclosure of the views of the French minister, who was probably content to hint the sentiments of his

court, in a manner intelligible to Franklin's sagacity, without startling his honour as an officer of the British crown : and though interested in the policy of France, both as an officer of the crown and a partizan of America, Franklin desired equally to conceal from the British government and from his countrymen, the impression which he had received on this subject ; and communicated it only to his son, under a strict injunction of secrecy.¹ Nor was this the only or even the most notable attempt of the French court to animate the courage and resistance of the Americans, and promote a total breach between them and the British nation. Both prior and subsequent to this period, various emissaries employed by the court of France travelled in disguise through the American states, examining in what points the British dominion was most vulnerable, and seizing every opportunity to fan the flame of discontent, and insinuate that revolt would be facilitated by foreign assistance. The most distinguished of these emissaries was a German baron named De Kalb, a brave and enterprising officer who had long served in the armies of France, and afterwards held a commission in the revolutionary army of America. He was a devoted partizan and indefatigable agent of France, and retained this function even while employed as an officer in the American army ; maintaining, like some other French officers similarly circumstanced, a close correspondence in cipher with the ministers of France, both before and after the open espousal of the American cause by the French government. Though active, subtle, and adroit as an intriguer, De Kalb appears to have been but a superficial observer. He often complained of his want of success in stimulating the Americans to revolt ; and expressed his astonishment at the blundering folly with which the English government effaced the ardent and deep-rooted attachment which still (he was persuaded) linked the colonists to their parent state. It seems, indeed, highly probable that his suggestions at first (and he was employed from

¹ After relating the extraordinary civilities and caresses of the French ambassador, and his inquisitiveness about the affairs of America, he adds—" I fancy that intriguing nation would like very well to meddle on occasion, and blow up the coals between Britain and her colonies ; but I hope we shall give them no opportunity." Yet he adds that he is setting off on a visit to Paris, provided with letters of introduction from the French ambassador.

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a very early period) neither were nor could be so acceptable as he desired to the Americans, whose jealousy of the British government not only was mixed with a considerable degree of affection for the British people, but could not readily coalesce with prospects of the aid and friendship of nations which, as the enemies of Britain, they had often regarded through the unfavourable medium of hostile relations with themselves. The idea more particularly of French aid and favour, was more likely at first to chill the ardour than to warm the courage of the Americans in a dispute with Britain; for the French had been their enemies since the foundation of the colonial settlements, and the most interesting portions of their history and recollections consisted of dangers and sufferings entailed by the hostilities of France, or of triumph and advantage associated with the success of Britain over her rival. Though the honour and candour of De Kalb are far from unexceptionable, no good reason has been shown for taxing him (in the representations to which we have adverted) with want of sincerity, and still less for imputing to him gross and wilful falsehood. But he seems, in the account of his missions, and in his estimate of the sentiments and dispositions of the Americans, to have been blinded by an enthusiastic devotion to the interests of France, and an exclusive predilection for French character, temperament, and manners.¹ The employment of De Kalb and of other agents of France in America, is an indisputable fact; the success of their exertions is a point controverted and controvertible. A recent European historian of the American revolution has, doubtless, been betrayed into exaggeration in describing the intrigues of France as the main cause of that event; and some American writers have been transported by patriotic indignation into an opposite error, and too hastily denied that the intrigues of France exerted any influence at all on the sen-

¹ "There is," says De Kalb, in one of his letters, "a hundred times more enthusiasm for the American Revolution in any one of our coffee-houses of Paris, than in all the thirteen provinces of America united." La Fayette, who was more intimately acquainted with the Americans than De Kalb, formed a juster estimate of the calm yet firm and determined purpose of liberty which they cherished. That great and good man assured me that very shortly after his first arrival in America, he clearly perceived that the Americans, even though wholly unassisted in the struggle with Britain, would never lay down their arms till they achieved their independence, and that this impression was confirmed by all his subsequent experience.

timents of their countrymen.¹ It would require more than mortal discernment to ascertain how far either of these disputants is wrong, or both of them are right. It is certain, that at an early period of the revolutionary war, and before France had ventured openly to support America, several of the agents of the French ministers obtained commands in the American army; and that even before this army was formed, some of the leaders of the popular party in America confidently relied on the assistance of France, Holland, and Spain, in case of a final rupture with Britain.²

The act of parliament which imposed duties on tea and other articles imported into America, excited as much concern and anxiety, and experienced an opposition as determined, though not as violent, as the Stamp Act had done. Instead of the aversion with which the colonists regarded the recent act being diminished by the consideration that the duties which it imposed were strictly speaking external taxes, the imposition of these duties and the sanction which they received from an extension of the principle of external taxation, tended to destroy all the respect or acquiescence which this prerogative had ever obtained in America. That there was no solid distinction between internal and external taxation, had been maintained by Otis, in America, and by Grenville, in the British parliament: it was a deduction that manifestly followed from the reasonings of Pitt and Camden; and was a tenet embraced and avowed by many other politicians, both among the friends of America and the partizans of Britain. It was now maintained in an able and spirited treatise

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¹ Garden, in particular, has passed a severe censure on Botta for exaggerating the influence of the French intrigues. But, in order to support his own equally inadmissible assertion, that these intrigues were totally inefficacious, he appeals only to De Kalb whom he had previously denounced as a perfidious calumniator of America.

La Fayette informed me that De Kalb was employed by the French minister the Duke De Choiseul, who rewarded his services, but kept aloof from direct intercourse with him, and retained the power of disavowing his agency; and that both De Kalb and other agents of France indulged themselves in much exaggeration and far outstepped the limits of their instructions, in the representations and overtures which they made to the Americans. The conduct of the French court, in relation to the quarrel between Britain and her colonies, was exceedingly fluctuating, and its purposes long unfixed.

² Ann. Reg. for 1767 and for 1775. Hutchinson. Bradford. Gordon. Franklin's Memoirs. Botta's Hist. of the War of the Independence of America. Stedman's Hist. of the American War. Garden. Wirt.

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entitled, "*Letters of a Pennsylvanian Farmer*,"—the production of John Dickenson a citizen of Pennsylvania, which obtained a prodigious circulation and high popularity in America, and gained its author the thanks of the assembly of Massachusetts. He warned his countrymen not to be deluded by the moderate rate of the new duties,—a circumstance which he characterized as artfully intended to prepare their necks for the reception of a collar whose increasing weight would gradually bow them to the ground; and he encouraged them to hope that a deliverance from this evil would be obtained by a resumption of the same general and animated opposition which had procured the repeal of the Stamp Act. These letters¹ gave so strong an impulse to the spirit of discontent and resistance in America, that they would probably have incited the people to some violent and tumultuary proceedings if the public attention had not been previously directed to a system of opposition at once more effectual, prudent, and magnanimous. Some of the leading politicians in Massachusetts having suggested that the last of the defensive measures employed against the Stamp Act, the non-importation agreement, had been more efficient than all the others and was peculiarly applicable to the present emergency, the idea was eagerly embraced; and at a general meeting of the inhabitants of Boston, resolutions were embraced to discontinue the importation of commodities from England, and especially of all those on which the new duties had been laid, until not only the act imposing them, but all the late revenue acts, likewise, should be repealed;—and, as a subsidiary measure, to promote by every possible effort the growth of domestic manufactures and the practice of industry

¹ They were attributed, in England, to Dr. Franklin, whom, in fact, they seem to have converted from the opinion which he had recently expressed of the legitimacy of external taxes imposed by the parliament on America. In a letter written in the spring of the following year, after alluding to Dickenson's work, he says, "The more I have thought and read on the subject, the more I find myself confirmed in opinion that no middle doctrine can be well maintained; I mean not clearly with intelligible arguments. Something might be made of either of the extremes; that parliament has power to make *all laws* for us, or that it has power to make *no laws* for us; and I think the arguments for the latter more numerous and weighty than those for the former."—"I know not," he adds, "what the Boston people mean by the *subordination* they acknowledge in their assembly to parliament, while they deny its power to make laws for them,"—and doubtless the Boston people attached to this phrase as little of definite import as he was able to discern in it.

and economy. These resolutions were propagated throughout America, and from the first zealously executed in New England, where a considerable change of manners now began to appear. Of late years a taste for gay and expensive pleasures had been gaining ground among the descendants of the puritans, especially in Massachusetts; and several attempts had been made, though ineffectually, to procure a repeal of the law which prohibited theatrical entertainments. But now a general simplicity of dress and living was diligently cultivated; and even the taste for expensive funerals, which the law had vainly attempted to restrain, was sacrificed to the practice of habits which were justly accounted the firmest as well as the most respectable bulwarks of American freedom. But it is easier to induce mankind in general to pursue liberty with passionate zeal than to merit and secure it by patient fortitude and virtue. In other parts of America, some disinclination was shown at first to imitate the austere example of New England; and the merchants of New York and Philadelphia in particular, more impressed with the inconvenience they had endured than with the advantage they had gained from the former non-importation agreement, declined for a while to repeat the experiment. Nothing could be more discouraging to the New Englanders; for the efficacy of the measure depended on its general adoption. Yet they persisted with a firm and stubborn determination, which even those who refused to imitate could not forbear to praise; and it was generally declared in the provinces that "if America be saved from the impending danger, New England will be her acknowledged guardian." By degrees, however, the example of this people obtained imitation as well as applause. The political clubs, which began to resume their functions and activity, employed every art of persuasion and even intimidation to induce their countrymen to embrace the non-importation agreement, which by their aid and other concurring circumstances obtained a general, though not till two years after the present period, a universal prevalence in America.¹ In several of the provinces, meanwhile, and especially in New England, there

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¹ Yet, between 1764 and 1767, the annual exports from Britain to America are said to have sustained a diminution of 1,500,000*l.* sterling. Political Register for 1767.

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were published in pamphlets and newspapers a great variety of political essays, inquiries, strictures, and arguments, many of which impugned the sovereign authority of the parent state with a boldness unknown before. America, it was said, had now passed her national minority; and with the age came the right and the capacity of independence. It was maintained that freemen were not to be governed, any more than taxed but by their own consent signified by their own representatives; and that the British parliament was no more entitled to derive present authority from the past exercise or abuse of power over America, than a private trustee or guardian was entitled to retain his government of a ward advanced to manhood on the plea of having ruled him in his non-age and pillaged his estate.¹ The longer that the controversy between Britain and her colonies endured, the bolder became the views and the language of American writers and politicians. The more that the foundations of sovereign authority were explored, the more were the pillars of the British dominion shaken and undermined.

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Although the act of parliament by which the assembly of New York had been suspended excited much alarm and indignation among the American people, and was stigmatized in all their newspapers as a measure fraught with general danger, yet the several provincial governments were so completely disconnected by any legal or formal tie, that censure, complaint, or even public notice of that measure by any of the other states or their representative assemblies, seemed an irregular and incompetent proceeding. The assembly of Virginia, however, were not deterred by this consideration from passing a resolution in which they denounced as grievous encroachments upon American liberty, not only the act which was confined to New York, but the previous and more general statute, for disobedience to which New York had been punished. If the parliament, they warmly declared, can lawfully compel the colonies to furnish a single article of accommodation to the troops sent from England, it may by parity of reason oblige them to furnish clothes, arms, and every necessary, even including the pay of the officers and soldiers; a doctrine

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1768. Franklin's Memoirs and Correspondence. Bradford. Gordon.

totally incompatible with the existence of liberty or the security of property in America. CHAP. II.

Massachusetts, which had suggested the convention of 1765, again took the lead in proposing by united councils to surmount or diminish the grand impediment by which the interests of American liberty were obstructed. The assembly of this province now addressed to all the sister colonies a circular letter, signifying that they had seriously considered the great evils to which the inhabitants of America were subjected from the operation of several acts of parliament imposing taxes upon them; and requesting the other colonies to unite in suitable measures to obtain redress. The letter concluded with strong expressions of loyalty to the king, and "of firm confidence that the *united* and dutiful supplications of his distressed American subjects will meet with his royal and favourable acceptance." The assembly were deterred from proposing a repetition of the convention which had taken place three years before, by the intelligence they had received of the displeasure with which that proceeding had been regarded by the British government; and on the present occasion, they contented themselves with proposing mutual correspondence between the colonies, and uniformity of language in their addresses to the crown. Along with their circular letter they despatched copies of a petition to the king, a representation to the royal ministers, and a letter of instructions to the provincial agent at London, which they had composed and transmitted to England. In these compositions, they declared that the parliament, doubtless, possessed supreme legislative power over the whole empire, but that, as it derived its authority from the political system or constitution of the state, it could not overleap the bounds of constitutional principles without destroying its own foundation: that in conformity with the principles of the British constitution, the American colonists enjoyed the right of being taxed by their own representatives alone, and had hitherto exercised it by the instrumentality of their subordinate legislatures; that they were, therefore, entitled (exclusive of any consideration of charter franchises) with a decent firmness becoming the character of freemen and subjects, to assert their natural and constitutional right; and that it was their humble opinion that this

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right had been violated by the acts of parliament imposing taxes upon them for the express purpose of raising a revenue: that the American judges were not, like the judges of England, independent of the crown; and that freedom and justice were not secured to a people deprived of all control over governors and judges holding their commissions by the tenure of royal will and pleasure: that the enactment authorizing a civil list with an indefinite number of public officers, whose salaries were to be measured and appointed by the king and paid by the colonists, and the statute requiring the colonists to furnish provisions to the British troops, were burdensome and oppressive; that they had reason to believe that the enemies of the colonists had represented them to the king as factious, disloyal, and aiming at independence; but that this assembly could assure his majesty, with regard to the people of Massachusetts, and as they also believed of all his American territories, that the charge was unjust. The circular letter and other relative compositions of the Massachusetts assembly produced a strong sensation throughout America. Notwithstanding all the caution and moderation that had been exerted in the conduct of this measure, its great importance was clearly perceived. The assembly of New Hampshire, while they expressed approbation of the conduct of Massachusetts, timidly declined to imitate it, under pretence that their session was near its close and that such a period was unsuitable to the transaction of important business: a proceeding for which they received the commendations of the king in the following year. But most of the other provincial assemblies acceded zealously and promptly to the overture of Massachusetts, and voted petitions and representations of the same tenor with those of which copies had been transmitted to them. The Virginian assembly warmly applauded the generous concern manifested by Massachusetts for American liberty.

Important, and formidable to British authority, as this measure undoubtedly was, it seems not more, nay rather less properly obnoxious to the censure of the British government than the proposition of a general convention in 1765, upon which no public censure had been passed. But the conduct of Massachusetts was now to be judged by a ministerial cabinet much less liberal and indulgent than that which existed

at the former epoch. The British cabinet, in the close of last year, underwent a considerable change, of which every particular was unpropitious to a generous or conciliating policy towards America. Townsend the Chancellor of the Exchequer, dying, was succeeded by Lord North, a man devoted to royal prerogative. The management of American affairs was withdrawn from Lord Shelburne, and committed to Lord Hillsborough, a determined partizan of the highest pretensions and largest authority of the parent state over her colonies. Conway had resigned; other changes of similar character and import had taken place: and though Lord Chatham continued to hold office till the autumn of the present year, he was rendered quite insignificant in the cabinet by ill health and the disregard of his colleagues. Governor Bernard, besides, who was the object of general dislike in Massachusetts, and engaged in continual altercations with the assembly, where he was as eager to extend the special prerogative of the governor as to support the general prerogative of the parent state, had sought to revenge himself upon his antagonists by exciting prepossessions in the British cabinet against the whole provincial population. For this purpose, he industriously collected and transmitted all the most violent publications that had recently appeared at Boston; assuring the ministry that these compositions faithfully represented the sentiments by which the whole province was actuated, and that he daily expected a rebellion. He afterwards endeavoured to correct this hasty expression; and rushed into the opposite extreme of declaring that he had completely misunderstood the sentiments of the people, which were he said almost universally opposed to the publications which he had been led to believe congenial to them.¹ He even extolled with high commendation the prudence, moderation, and conciliating temper of the assembly, in communications to the ministry, dated only a few days before the petition to the king, the representation to the ministers, and the letter to the other colonies were voted. Provoked and astonished by this occurrence, and eager to

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¹ "A certain noble lord expressed himself to me with some disgust and contempt of Bernard on this occasion, saying he ought to have known his people better; that he appeared to be too fond of contention, and mistook the matter greatly in supposing such letters as he wrote were acceptable to the ministry." Franklin.

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justify himself, he conveyed a false and irritating account of the whole transaction to Britain, which unfortunately found too much credit with the royal cabinet. The tenor of his misrepresentations appears from a despatch which Lord Hillsborough instantly addressed to him, reprobating the vote in favour of the circular letter as "unfair, contrary to the real sense of the assembly, and procured by surprise;" and instructing him to require the assembly to rescind the resolution which had given birth to the circular letter, and to declare their disapprobation of that rash and hasty transaction. In case of their refusal to comply with this requisition, he was directed to dissolve the assembly, and transmit to England an account of its behaviour. Circular letters were at the same time addressed by Lord Hillsborough to the governors of all the American provinces, enclosing copies of the obnoxious composition of the Massachusetts assembly, and signifying that, "As his majesty considers this measure to be of the most dangerous and factious tendency, calculated to inflame the minds of his good subjects in the colonies, and promote an unwarrantable combination, and to exhibit an open opposition to and denial of the authority of parliament, and to subvert the true principles of the constitution, it is his majesty's pleasure that you should immediately upon the receipt hereof, exert your utmost influence to defeat this flagitious attempt to disturb the public peace, by prevailing upon the assembly of your province to take no notice of it,—which will be treating it with the contempt it deserves." Such an amazing effusion of spleen, insolence, and folly, perhaps, never before disgraced the councils of the government of a civilized community. It excited general disgust in America, and served only to induce the other provinces to afford new symptoms of their willingness to make common cause with Massachusetts. Greatly lowered, indeed, was the language of England, both in dignity of sentiment and majesty of tone, since Hillsborough succeeded Pitt as the interpreter of her will to America.

Meanwhile, additional cause of offence and quarrel arose in America from the operation of the act by which a board of customs had been established at Boston. Paxton, one of the commissioners, had long been an object of general detestation

to the people of Massachusetts, on account of the zeal with which he seconded all the pretensions of British prerogative; and only his absence from the province during the Stamp Act riots, had saved him from a share of the popular vengeance on that occasion. He and his colleagues now enforced the trade laws with a rigour hitherto unknown, and which contributed not a little to increase the prevailing inquietude and irritation. At New York there was printed and circulated, a manifesto or proclamation assuring the inhabitants that commissioners of customs would soon be established there as well as at Boston, and summoning every friend of liberty to hold himself in readiness to receive them with the same treatment which had been bestowed upon "a set of miscreants under the name of stamp masters, in the year 1765." All the efforts of the governor to discover the authors of this inflammatory proclamation proved ineffectual. In this province the spirit of liberty was no way depressed, nor was even the conduct of public business obstructed by the act of parliament restraining the assembly from the exercise of legislative functions. With a plausible show of obedience to the letter of the statute, the assembly forbore to enact formal *laws*: but whenever money was needed for public purposes, they passed *resolutions* to which the people lent a prompt and cheerful obedience: and thus the act, though sufficient to exasperate, proved quite impotent to punish. It had been the practice in every quarter of British America for the officers of the customs to allow merchants and ship-masters to enter in the custom-house books only a part of their imported cargoes, and to land the remainder duty free. To this practice, which had become so inveterate that the colonists regarded the advantage accruing from it as a right rather than an indulgence, the commissioners now resolved to put a stop. A sloop called the *Liberty*, belonging to Hancock, having arrived at Boston laden with wine from Madeira, the captain as usual, proposed to the tide-waiter who came to inspect the cargo, that part of it should be landed duty free; and meeting a refusal, laid violent hands upon him, and with the assistance of the crew locked him up in the cabin till the whole cargo was carried ashore. The next morning he entered a few pipes of the wine at the custom-house, as having formed all his lading: but the

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June 10.

- BOOK XI.
1768. commissioners of the customs, declaring that the entry was false, caused the sloop to be arrested. To secure the capture, it was proposed that the vessel should be removed from the wharf and towed under the guns of the Romney man-of-war; and by the assistance of the Romney's boats this was accordingly performed in spite of the opposition of a great assemblage of the people, who, finding their remonstrances disregarded, assaulted the custom-house officers with a violence that had nearly proved fatal to their lives. On the following day, the populace again assembling before the houses of the collector, comptroller, and inspector-general of the customs, broke their windows, and then seizing the collector's boat, dragged it through the town, and burned it on the common. Their violence, whether satiated or not, was checked at this point by the flight of the commissioners and other officers of the customs, who, learning that renewed assemblages of the people were expected, and believing, or affecting to believe that farther outrages were meditated against themselves, hastily left the place, and took refuge first on board the ship of war, and afterwards in Castle William. The city, meanwhile, resounded with complaints of the insult that had been offered to the inhabitants in removing the sloop from the wharf, and thus proclaiming apprehensions of a rescue. These complaints were sanctioned by the assembly, who declared that the criminality of the rioters was extenuated by the irritating and unprecedented circumstances of the seizure; but added, nevertheless, that as the rioters deserved severe punishment, they must beseech the governor to direct that they should be prosecuted, and to proclaim a reward for their discovery. The rioters, however, had nothing to fear: nor was any one of them ever molested. A suit for penalties was afterwards instituted against Hancock in the court of admiralty: but the officers of the crown finding it beyond their power to adduce sufficient evidence of facts which though every body knew, nobody would attest, abandoned the prosecution and restored the vessel. The conduct of the officers in taxing the people, by implication, with the purpose of rescue was generally condemned. It was indeed remarked by the few who ventured to defend it, that a rescue had actually taken place eighteen months before. But to this the advocates of the people replied
- June 12. Riot at Boston.
- June 13.

that the popular temper had undergone a change since then,— C H A P.
 as was verified by the fact that no subsequent rescue had been II.
 attempted:—a fact the more certain, though the less significant, as in reality no seizure in the interim had been made. 1768.
 Unluckily, however, about a month after the arrest of Hancock's vessel, a schooner which was seized with a smuggled cargo of molasses, and left at the wharf under the care of the custom-house officers, was boarded during the night by a numerous body of men who easily overpowered and confined the officers, and carried the cargo on shore. The inhabitants in general were highly scandalized to find their recent declarations so completely falsified: and the select men of Boston sending for the master of the schooner, ordered him to surrender the molasses directly, under pain of the displeasure of the town. He obeyed this injunction without a moment's hesitation.

It was in the midst of the ferment produced by the seizure of Hancock's vessel, that Bernard acquainted the assembly of Massachusetts with the communication which he had received from Lord Hillsborough. The patriotic spirit of this body was additionally roused and invigorated instead of being depressed by the intelligence; and it was farther sustained by the arrival of friendly and approving letters from the assemblies of Virginia, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Georgia.¹ They easily repelled the charges levelled against the conduct of the former assembly, and by a great majority of voices refused to rescind its proceedings. "When Lord Hillsborough knows that we will not rescind our acts," said Otis, in a speech which was highly extolled by the popular party, and denounced as a treasonable effusion by the partizans of Britain, "he should apply to parliament to rescind theirs. *Let Britain rescind her measures, or her authority is lost for ever.*"² Several members who had in the former session opposed the resolution for the circular letter, now voted against rescinding it, declaring that they would not be subject even to royal dictation in the discharge of their legislative functions. The assembly addressed

¹ The assembly of this province was dissolved by the governor, Sir James Wright, on account of its letter to Massachusetts. Ann. Reg. for 1769.

² So much had Otis' courage increased since the year 1765, when, on first reading the Virginian resolutions, he declared them a treasonable composition.

- BOOK
XI.
1768. a letter to the Earl of Hillsborough, recapitulating the several votes and resolutions which had been passed in the former session relative to the circular letter,—showing that this matter had been transacted in the meridian of the session, in full convocation, and in conformity with the sentiments of a large majority of the members,—and defending in terms forcible and manly, yet decent and respectful, the transaction which was said to have given so much offence to the king. To the
- June 30. governor they finally voted an address, of which the tenor was so firm and spirited that it merits more particular commemoration. “It is to us incomprehensible,” they declared, “that we should be required, under peril of dissolution, to rescind the resolve of a former house, when it is evident that that resolve has no existence but as a mere historical fact. Your excellency must know that the resolve is, to speak in the language of the common law, not now executory, but to all intents and purposes executed. If, as is most probable, by the word *rescinding* is intended the passing a vote in direct and express disapprobation of the measure taken by the former house as illegal, inflammatory, and tending to promote unjustifiable combinations against his majesty’s peace, crown, and dignity, we must take the liberty to testify and publicly to declare that we take it to be the native, inherent, indefeasible right of the subjects, jointly or severally, to petition the king for the redress of grievances, provided that the same be done in a decent, dutiful, loyal, and constitutional way, without tumult, disorder, and confusion. If the votes of this house are to be controlled by the direction of a minister, we have left to us but a vain semblance of liberty. We have now only to inform you that this house have voted *not to rescind*; and that, on a division on the question, there were ninety-two nays, and seventeen yeas.” That the people might know their friends, the assembly ordered at the same time that the names of the voters on both sides of the question should be printed and published. The list of the majority was circulated with every expression of honour and applause: the list of the minority¹ was placarded with testimonies of contempt and derision. On
- July 1. the following day the governor dissolved the assembly. Partly

¹ “Like the list of the *Straffordians* at London, in the preceding century.” Hutchinson.

for this act of power, which, though enjoined to him by a royal mandate, was produced by his own misrepresentations, and partly on account of the intelligence which was received from England of his continual solicitations that a military force should be despatched to Massachusetts, most of the towns and corporations in this province issued declarations which were published in the newspapers, denouncing Bernard as a traitor and enemy of the country.¹

CHAP.
11.
1768.
July 1.
and dissolution of
the Massachusetts
assembly.

It seemed as if every attempt to vindicate the newly-extended prerogative of the parent state was fated to produce only a responsive and more successful effort of the colonists to assume an attitude more and more nearly realizing a practical independence of British authority. The Stamp Act, among other consequences, produced, in the convention at New York, the first demonstration of the readiness of the provinces to *unite* in opposition to the prerogative of Britain: the act of parliament which professed to restrain the powers and functions of the New York assembly served in effect to enlarge them: the act imposing duties on tea and other articles elicited the remarkable proceedings which we have witnessed in Massachusetts: and now the arbitrary dissolution of the Massachusetts assembly by the command of a minister, who ignorantly or wilfully misrepresented its transactions, produced a measure still bolder and more decided. Governor Bernard having, in answer to several applications, declared that he would not without his majesty's command again assemble the representatives of the people till the month of May in the following year, when, by the terms of the provincial charter, a new assembly must necessarily be convoked,—a strong desire was manifested by the people to counteract this arbitrary suspension of democratical authority by an irregular exertion of it. In conformity with the wishes of their fellow-citizens, the select-men of Boston proposed to all the corporations and communities in Massachusetts a convention of committees of their members to deliberate on constitutional measures for obtaining a redress of their grievances. This project was countenanced

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1768. Franklin's Private Correspondence. Bradford. Gordon. Hutchinson. Eliot. Political Register for 1768—where some curious extracts from the American newspapers are preserved. An Appeal to the World, or Vindication of the Town of Boston from the aspersions of Governor Bernard. The True Sentiments of America.

BOOK XI.
 1768. by the wealthier inhabitants of the province, who were sensible alike of the dangers of chilling or stimulating the ardour by opposing themselves to the desires of their countrymen, and were willing to court their suffrages to sit in the convention, in order to retain in their own hands the management of this novel political organ. To what extremity the present temper of the people was capable of precipitating them was strikingly betokened at a general meeting of the citizens of Boston in the beginning of September, at which it was voted, that *as there is a prevailing apprehension in the minds of many of a war with France*, all the inhabitants of the province should be warned forthwith to provide themselves with arms and ammunition, in order to be ready to repel sudden danger.¹ In compliance with the applications of the select-men, a convention of committees chosen by ninety-six towns and eight districts of Massachusetts, assembled at Boston. Many persons regarded this proceeding with alarm; and some considered it tantamount to an act of high treason. The members of the convention were sensible of the arduous and delicate predicament in which they were placed, and of the expediency of strict and guarded moderation in the exercise of novel functions and indefinite power. They began by disclaiming all legislative authority. In resolutions which they embraced and published, and in a petition which they presented to the governor for the convocation of an assembly, they made warm professions of loyalty to the king, expressed their aversion to standing armies, and also to popular tumults and disorders, and their readiness to assist in suppressing riots and preserving the peace; and strongly recommended patience and good order to their countrymen. The governor refused to receive their petition, or otherwise recognise them as a legitimate assemblage: adding that as a friend of the province he must implore them to desist from the dangerous and criminal course in which they were engaged. The convention having prepared and transmitted a petition to the king, expressed in the most temperate and respectful language, after a short session, dissolved itself. The British ministers agreeing with Bernard

Sept. 22.
 Conven-
 tion in
 Massachu-
 setts.

¹ Several of the staunchest patriots in America expressed much disapprobation of the irritating menace implied in this invitation to take arms, and of the disingenuous pretence on which it was founded.

in regarding the convention as a criminal association, refused to permit the petition from it to be presented to the king, who was thus confined to the knowledge merely that such a convention had been held, without being made acquainted with its language and demeanour.

CHAP.
II.
1768.

Bernard, Hutchinson, the commissioners of the customs, and other partizans of royal prerogative, had for some time urgently solicited from the British government the detachment of a strong military force, which they represented as absolutely necessary to the vigour and even the existence of the executive power in Massachusetts. It was supposed or pretended by some of the leading popular politicians, that the flight of the commissioners of the customs from Boston was a mere politic device to reinforce this solicitation. In effect, the very day after the Massachusetts convention was dissolved, two British regiments, escorted by seven armed vessels, arrived at Boston from Halifax. The first operation of the fleet was to assume a position which commanded the town; and, presently after, the troops amounting to upwards of seven hundred men, under cover of the guns of the ships, landed without opposition, and marched with muskets charged, bayonets fixed, and every other symptom of martial preparation into the Common. In the evening the select-men of Boston were required by the royal functionaries to provide quarters in the town for the two regiments; but they peremptorily refused. A temporary shelter in Fanueil Hall was, however, permitted to one regiment which was destitute of camp equipage. On the following day, the state-house by order of the governor was opened for the reception of the soldiers, and two field-pieces, along with the main-guard, were stationed in its front. Boston presented the appearance of a garrisoned town. An ostentatious display was made of the presence and alertness of a military force; and every arrangement in the distribution of this force seemed to be studiously calculated to provoke the indignation of the citizens, whose temper, never remarkable for tolerance, had already been chafed into a very keen susceptibility of provocation. The lower apartments of the state-house, which had been used by the merchants as an exchange; the chamber of the assembly; the court-house; Fanueil Hall—places which had been hitherto the seats and

Sept. 27.
Sept. 28.
Occupation of Boston by British troops.

BOOK instruments of justice, freedom, and commercial convenience,
 XI. —were now converted into a citadel of military force. Though

1768. the assembly was dissolved, the council continued its sittings : and it was not without disgust, that in proceeding to their chamber, the councillors found themselves compelled to pass the guards placed at the door of the state-house. The common was covered with tents ; soldiers were continually marching and counter-marching to relieve the guards ; and the sentinels challenged the inhabitants as they passed at night in the streets. The votaries of liberty resented this vexatious obtrusion of military power ; and all devout persons were shocked to see the solemnity of Sunday profaned, and the religious exercises of the people disturbed by the exhibition of military parade, and the unholy clangour of drums and other martial music. After the troops had obtained quarters, the council were required to provide barracks for them in conformity with the act of parliament ; but they resolutely declined to lend any assistance to the execution of that obnoxious statute. General Gage the commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, leaving his head-quarters at New York, came for a while to Boston to support the requisition of the governor to the council ; but finding his urgency ineffectual, he contented himself with hiring the houses of individual inhabitants for the accommodation of the troops. The people in general were disgusted and offended, but not overawed by the presence of the soldiers ; nor were their sentiments altered by the large additions soon after made to the military force at Boston, which before the close of the year amounted to four thousand men.¹
- October. Nov. 10.

By this impolitic demonstration, did the British ministers attempt to invigorate the force of government at the extremity of the empire, while divisions and frequent fluctuations in the cabinet weakened its influence at home ; and while England itself was a scene of riot, disorder, and violent opposition to established authority. Of the disorders which arose at this time in England, the chief ostensible cause was the persecution waged by the ministers against the celebrated John Wilkes, a profligate unprincipled man who in a season

¹ Bradford. Gordon. Hutchinson. Holmes. Ann. Reg. for 1768.

of public ferment and agitation, usurping the all-atoning title of a patriot, enacted this part with such spirit and ability as to render him the idol of the people, and to provoke the government to vindictive measures so unworthy and illegal as still farther to animate the general affection for Wilkes and the corresponding rage against his adversaries. The cry of "Wilkes and liberty," with which all England now resounded and continued for some years after to resound, was re-echoed by numerous voices in the colonies : ¹ and the accounts of the embarrassed situation of the ministry and the convulsions in the parent state, transmitted by the colonial agents to their countrymen, doubtless tended to fortify the spirit of American resistance.²

All the rigorous measures of the ministry, however, with regard to the colonies received the sanction of the parliament. In the close of this year, the House of Lords passed a censure on the non-importation agreements lately resumed in New England, as factious and menacing combinations,—which had no other effect than to render this engine of resistance more popular in America. In the commencement of the following year, the same aristocratical branch of the British legislature passed resolutions condemning all the recent proceedings of the people of Massachusetts; and particularly declaring the election of deputies to a popular convention, and the assembling of that convention, daring insults offered to his majesty's authority and audacious usurpations of the powers of government, for which it was requisite that the principal actors should be brought to condign and exemplary punishment. These resolutions were sent down to the House of Commons, whose con-

CHAP.
II.
1768.

December.

1769.

¹ Wilkes rewarded his American partizans and embarrassed his enemies in the British cabinet, by warmly defending and applauding the conduct of the Americans. In a speech to the livery of London at Guildhall, in 1776, he said—"All public spirit is here visibly decaying, and that stern manly virtue of our fathers which drove from this land of freedom the last Stuart tyrant, is held in contempt by their abandoned offspring. A dissolution of the empire, ruin, and slavery, are advancing rapidly upon us, and we are ripe for destruction. If we are saved, it will be almost solely by the courage and noble spirit of our American brethren, whom neither the luxuries of a court, nor the sordid lust of avarice in a rapacious and venal metropolis, have hitherto corrupted." *Ann. Reg. for 1776.* This was mere factious cant. From Stephens' *Life of Horne Tooke*, it appears that Wilkes heartily hated and despised the Americans, who, in these sentiments, received the only compliment that such a man was competent to bestow.

² *Ann. Reg. for 1768.* Hutchinson. Franklin's *Private Correspondence.* See Note XIII. at the end of the volume.

BOOK

XI.

1769.

currence in them was demanded by the Lords. This was opposed by several members, and among others by Pownall who had formerly been governor of Massachusetts, by Colonel Barré, and by Edmund Burke who had recently commenced in public life a career on which his large capacity and fervid genius have shed a brilliant and dazzling lustre. They strongly censured the late severities which the ministry had employed against Massachusetts, and declared their conviction that the people of this province had been unjustly treated. "Away with these partial resentful trifles," said Barré, addressing himself to the ministers, "calculated to irritate, not to quell or appease—inadequate to their purpose; unworthy of us! Why will you endeavour to deceive yourselves and us? You know that it is not Massachusetts only that disputes your right; but every part of America. From one end of the continent to the other, they tell you that you have no right to tax them. My sentiments of this matter, you well know. Consider well what you are doing. Act openly and honestly. Tell them, you *will* tax them; and that they *must* submit. Do not adopt this little, insidious, futile plan. They will despise you for it." Pownall declared that, from his acquaintance with the character, sentiments, and resources of the Americans, he was convinced that they could not be coerced into submission to oppressive laws; that although they were a sober, patient, and loyal people, especially in Massachusetts where he had resided, they might be exasperated beyond farther endurance; and that they would undoubtedly contend for their rights recognised by charter and inherited by them as British subjects, till either they recovered them or were annihilated by superior force. The House of Commons, however, sanctioned and espoused the resolutions of the Lords: and both

Feb. 9.

houses in a joint address to the king, expressed their perfect satisfaction with the measures which he had pursued; tendered the strongest assurances of effectual support to him in such farther measures as might be found necessary to maintain a due execution of the laws in Massachusetts; and besought him to direct the governor to take the most effectual methods for procuring information of all treasonable offences committed within the province since the 30th of December 1767, and to transmit the names of the offenders to one of the

secretaries of state, in order that his majesty might issue a special commission for bringing them to trial *in England*, in conformity with the provisions of the statute of the 35th of Henry the Eighth.¹ The last part of this address, which proposed the transportation from Massachusetts of persons whom the government might reckon offenders, to be tried before a tribunal in England, gave the highest offence to the colonists and provoked their severest animadversions.

CHAP.
II.

1769.

Violence
of the Bri-
tish Par-
liament.

When the intelligence of these transactions in the British senate arrived in America, the assembly of Massachusetts had not yet been convoked. The earliest, as well as the most important measures to which they gave rise, occurred in Virginia. This province had witnessed in the autumn of the previous year, the arrival of the last popular governor whom she was to receive from Britain—Lord Botetourt, an upright, honourable, benevolent, and accomplished man; the sincere friend of religion and virtue, and the liberal patron of science and literature in Virginia.² His desire to promote the welfare and happiness of the people whom he governed, though not wholly inefficacious, was counteracted by his principles of duty to the parent state and the strain and influence of that course of policy which for some time past she had pursued; and it was perhaps happy for his fame, that a sudden death closed his administration after it had endured only two years.³ Some offence was given by the pompous parade with which he repaired to meet and open the first assembly convoked since his arrival, when he was drawn by eight milk-white horses, in a state-coach presented to him for the purpose by the king; and the same formalities were observed which attend the opening of parliament by the British monarch. The sterner republicans were displeased with this pageantry, which they imagined was designed to captivate the senses of the people and impress them with reverence and abasement.

May 8.

¹ We have witnessed only one instance of the application of this statute to America, in the trial of Culpepper, in 1680, *ante*, Book IV. chap. i.

² "His exertions to promote the interests of William and Mary College were zealous and unremitted. He instituted an annual competition among the students for two elegant golden medals; one for the best Latin oration, and the other for superiority in mathematical science. For a long time, he sanctioned by his presence morning and evening prayers in the college. No company nor avocation prevented his attendance on this service." Campbell.

³ He died at Williamsburg, in October, 1770.

BOOK XI. The governor's speech to the assembly, however, breathed such unaffected good will and conciliation, as to dissipate every sentiment of jealousy against himself; and elicited in reply an address in the highest degree respectful and complimentary. But the members of the assembly had not been heedless or indifferent spectators of the progressive measures of the parent state, to the consideration of which, beginning with the last parliamentary taxes, and ending with the recent parliamentary declarations, they promptly yet deliberately addressed their attention. Their consultations were no longer embarrassed by division of sentiment,—all shades and distinctions of opinion being absorbed by one common and earnest solicitude for American liberty and the most determined purpose of opposition to British encroachment. In this spirit, they passed unanimously a series of resolutions, which they directed their speaker forthwith to transmit to all the houses of assembly in America, with a request that they would unite in corresponding measures. It was declared in these resolutions that the sole right of imposing taxes on the inhabitants of this colony is now, and ever has been legally and constitutionally vested in the provincial assembly; that it is the privilege of the inhabitants to petition their sovereign for redress of grievances, and that it is lawful to procure the concurrence of his majesty's other colonies in dutiful addresses praying the royal interposition in behalf of the violated rights of America; that all trials for treason, or any other crime committed or alleged to have been committed in this colony, ought to be conducted before his majesty's colonial courts; and that the transportation of any person suspected or accused of any crime whatsoever committed in the colony, for trial in another country, is derogatory to the rights of British subjects, inasmuch as the accused is thereby deprived of the inestimable privilege of being tried by a jury of his vicinity, as well as of the power of producing witnesses on his trial. The assembly at the same time framed an address to the king, in which, amidst assurances of loyalty to his crown and attachment to his person, they expressed a deep conviction that the complaints of *all* his American subjects were well founded.

May 16. Resolutions of the Virginian Assembly—
 May 17. Lord Botetourt alarmed by the intelligence of these transactions, suddenly presented himself on the following day to the

assembly, which he thus briefly addressed :—" Mr. Speaker, CHAP.
and gentlemen, I have heard of your resolutions, and augur ill II.
of their effects. You have made it my duty to dissolve you; 1769.
and you are dissolved accordingly." This, like the other vindictive measures which we have previously remarked, served only to give an additional shock to the British authority which it was designed to support. The assembly promptly obeyed the governor's mandate; but instantly re-assembled in a dwelling-house, where, professing to assume no other capacity than that of an association of private citizens and freeholders, they chose their late *speaker* Peyton Randolph to be their *moderator*; and, in defiance of the censorious resolution of the House of Lords, unanimously signed an agreement to import no more goods from Britain, and ordered copies of it to be dispersed for accessary signatures throughout the colony. The people acceded to it with an eagerness which perhaps the strongest recommendation of its authors, convoked as an assembly sanctioned by British authority, would have been unable to produce.

The influence of this brave and generous stand in defence of American liberty, was extensively propagated through the other provinces; and the conduct of Virginia became the theme of general praise and imitation. Inspired by this example, the assembly of South Carolina refused obedience to the act for providing accommodations to British troops: and passed resolves corresponding to those of Virginia. This assembly also voted and remitted in the course of the present year, the sum of 1500*l.* to a political society established at London under the title of *Supporters of the Bill of Rights*, and which was understood to be friendly to the interests and claims of America.¹ The assemblies of Maryland and of Delaware adopted the Virginian resolutions. The same policy was es-

¹ Some time after, the provincial governor, in obedience to the king's commands, signified to the assembly the high displeasure with which his majesty had learned this transaction. The assembly, resenting or contemning the governor's communication, were gratified and emboldened by the letter of acknowledgment which they received from a committee of the supporters of the Bill of Rights. This letter, subscribed by Sergeant Glynn and other distinguished British patriots, expressed at once the profoundest contempt and the liveliest abhorrence of the policy of the British government, and warmly declared that the people of England would never be accessory to the manifest design of enslaving their fellow-subjects in America. Ann. Reg. for 1770.

BOOK XI.
 1769. poused by the assembly of North Carolina, which was there-
 upon dissolved by Tryon the governor; and immediately after,
 with additional conformity to the example of Virginia, re-as-
 sembled on the footing of a private association, and passed a
 resolution against importing goods from Britain. Before the
 close of the year, the assembly of New York also passed re-
 solves in concurrence with those of Virginia. It was now that
 the non-importation agreement, revived by Massachusetts,
 was generally adopted throughout America. Inspectors were
 appointed by the political clubs or other popular associations
 to search all vessels arriving from England, and publish the
 names of any Americans who should presume to disregard that
 agreement: and all the power of the British government was
 insufficient to protect individuals thus denounced from the
 storm of popular hatred and indignation. Animated with
 the spirit of the measure, the colonists even extended the
 interruption of intercourse which it defined far beyond the
 limits of its express requisitions; and refrained from or cur-
 tailed every expenditure from which the people or the govern-
 ment of Britain might be supposed to derive advantage. The
 Americans had been accustomed annually to purchase at least
 an eighth part of the whole number of tickets in the British
 lottery; but in the present year the orders from all the colonies
 did not amount to one hundred tickets. To supply the
 articles formerly imported, various manufactures now began
 to spring up in America. In the following year, all the can-
 didates for the degree of bachelor of arts at Harvard College
 presented themselves in suits of black cloth, the manufacture
 of New England.¹

May 31. When the assembly of Massachusetts was at length neces-
 sarily convoked in conformity with the provincial charter, it
 plainly appeared how little the interests of British prerogative
 had gained from the penal dissolution by which the functions
 of that body had been so long suspended. In the frequent
 town-meetings convoked by mere popular will during the
 abeyance of the assembly, little restraint or moderation had
 prevailed; and the spirit of liberty freely indulged had largely

Remon-
 strance
 against
 British
 troops in
 Massachu-
 setts.

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1769 and for 1770. Burk's Virginia. Campbell. Bradford. Gordon. Ramsay. Holmes. Williamson.

expanded. Men were now accustomed to hear that the rights of the American legislatures superseded all claim of the British parliament to legislative authority over America; and the longer that this doctrine was uttered, the more generally acceptable it became. In one of these meetings, an objection having been urged against a particular motion that was made, on the ground that it implied a general independence of parliament, Samuel Adams warmly combated the objection in a speech which he concluded by declaring that "Independent we are, and independent we will be." Familiarized with such sentiments, even the most timorous and prudential politicians ceased to regard them with alarm. Such was the state of the public mind in Massachusetts when the assembly was again convoked. Their first proceeding was the appointment of a committee who signified to the governor that an armament investing Boston by sea and land, and a military guard with cannon mounted at the door of the state-house where the representatives of the people assembled, were inconsistent with the dignity and freedom of their deliberations; and that they expected that his excellency as the king's representative would order both the naval and the military force to be withdrawn during the session of the assembly. The governor answered to this application, that he possessed no authority over either the ships or the troops of the king: and as the assembly, with reiterated complaint,¹ firmly declined to transact business while surrounded with an armed force, he at length adjourned the session to the town of Cambridge. There he transmitted to them the accounts of the expense already incurred in quartering the British troops; with a message requiring that funds should be appropriated to its liquidation, and a provision made for the future quartering of the forces in Boston and Castle Island according to act of parliament. The assembly, on the following day, without returning any

CHAP.
II.
1769.

July 6.

July 7.

¹ "The use of the military power to enforce the execution of the laws," they declared in a remonstrance to the governor, "is, in our opinion, inconsistent with the spirit of a free constitution and the very theory of government,—that the body of the people, the *posse comitatus*, will always aid the magistrate in the execution of such laws as ought to be executed. The very supposition of an unwillingness in the people in general that a law should be executed, carries with it the strongest presumption that it is an unjust law, at least that it is unsalutary. *It cannot be their law*; for by the nature of a free constitution, the *people must consent to laws before they can be obliged in conscience to obey them.*"

B O O K direct answer to this message, passed a series of resolutions
 XI. equalling in spirit the resolves of Virginia, and as boldly gain-
 1769. saying the recent parliamentary declarations. Besides rei-
 terating every claim and complaint on which the Virginian
 assembly had insisted, they declared, that a general discontent
 on account of the revenue acts,—the expectation of the sudden
 approach of a military power to enforce these acts,—and the
 dissolution of the assembly,—were circumstances which jus-
 tified the people in assembling by a convention of committees,
 to consult for the promotion of peace and good order, and to
 present their united complaints to the throne: that the con-
 vention could not possibly be illegal, as its members disclaimed
 all powers of government: that the establishment of a stand-
 ing army in the province in time of peace, was an invasion of
 the undoubted rights of its inhabitants: that a standing army
 was not known as a branch of the British constitutional
 government: that sending armed troops into the colony under
 pretence of assisting the civil authority, was unprecedented,
 illegal, and highly dangerous to the liberties of the people:
 that this proceeding had been occasioned by the counsels and
 misrepresentations of Governor Bernard to the British minis-
 try: and that the arrangement in conformity with which the
 troops had been distributed in Boston, and the injunction laid
 on the assembly to make way for them by retiring to Cam-
 bridge were high and studied affronts to the province, and
 insulting indications that the legislative was overmastered by
 the military power. It was no small addition to the general
 discontent that Bernard, in proportion as he became odious
 to the people, seemed to rise in favour with the British court,
 from which he now received the title of a baronet. Undis-
 mayed, and perhaps rather incited by this circumstance, the
 assembly unanimously voted a petition to the king that he
 might be removed for ever from the government of the pro-
 vince: but their petition, whether it really exerted any influ-
 ence or not, was treated with the semblance of contemptuous
 July 12. disregard. Bernard having again urgently required the
 assembly to inform him whether they would or would not
 make provision for the troops, and receiving for answer that
 their honour, their interest, and their duty to their consti-
 tuents, forbade them to grant any such provision, prorogued

them till the commencement of the following year, when he appointed them to meet at Boston. This was the last act of his illiberal and unhappy administration of the government of Massachusetts; for he departed shortly after to England, where the ministers desired a personal consultation with him on the state of affairs in America; and never returned, though he continued for two years longer to hold the title of governor of Massachusetts. His official functions during this interval were executed by Hutchinson the lieutenant-governor.¹

CHAP.
II.
1769.
August.

Amidst these agitating scenes of passion, contention and violence, and the increasingly stormy aspect of the political horizon of America, there occurred at this period some transactions, memorable, yet of milder interest, and illustrative or promotive of the excellence and improvement of American character. We have already remarked the generous efforts of Lord Botetourt, by which knowledge and piety were promoted in Virginia. A more powerful impulse was imparted to these pursuits and a signal advantage conferred also on the cause of liberty, by the resort to America of Dr. John Witherspoon, one of the greatest divines that the church of Scotland has ever produced,—pious, pure, upright, sincere, and dauntless in his character and conduct,—endowed with a vigorous and comprehensive mind,—an accomplished scholar, and second to none of his cotemporaries either in the attainments of ethical philosophy or in the felicities of graceful and perspicuous eloquence. Harassed by long persecution from a numerous party both among the clergy¹ and laity of his native country, against whom he had vainly striven to restore the primitive strictness of ecclesiastical discipline, and to defend the popular election of ministers in opposition to the pretensions of royal and aristocratical patronage in the church of Scotland,—he at length accepted an invitation to preside over the college of New Jersey, and for this purpose accordingly repaired in the foregoing year to

Miscellaneous
transac-
tions—

Dr. Witherspoon—

¹ Bradford. Gordon. Hutchinson. Eliot. Pitkin. Among other friends of America by whom Bernard was loaded with opprobrium on his return to England, old General Oglethorpe is said to have personally expressed to him the utmost disgust and abhorrence at his conduct. Wirt. When he was asked if he had not been afraid to ride or walk out alone in a province where he was so generally detested, he answered "No; they are not a blood-thirsty people."

² Of whom the principal leader was Dr. Robertson the historian.

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 1769. Princeton;—sacrificing to his hopes of usefulness in this sphere a valuable estate which one of his relations offered to settle upon him if he would remain in Scotland. He produced an important change in the system of education both of the New Jersey college and of other American seminaries; extending the study of mathematical science, and introducing into the course of instruction in natural philosophy many improvements which had been previously but little known. The system of tuition in moral philosophy he placed on a new and improved basis; and he is cited as the first teacher in America of the substance of those doctrines of the philosophy of the human mind which the Scottish metaphysician Dr. Reid afterwards more fully developed. Under his presidency, more attention began to be paid than before to the principles of taste and composition and to the study of elegant literature. Witherspoon warmly espoused the cause of America in the controversy with Britain; defending it with admirable vigour and simplicity by his pen; exalting it in the pulpit by associating the interests of civil and religious truth and freedom; and zealously co-operating in its active vindication by his counsels and labours in the revolutionary senate. He was accompanied from Scotland by a number of his countrymen who formed a settlement which long continued honourably to reflect the piety and good morals, the industry, simplicity and moderation of its founders.¹

The present year was signalized in Rhode Island by the commencement of a course of collegiate instruction at Warren, in the county of Bristol. In consequence of the petition of a number of respectable inhabitants of this province, the charter by which the college was founded had been granted by the provincial assembly in 1764. By this charter there were incorporated thirty-six trustees, of whom twenty-two were baptists, five were quakers, five episcopalians, and four congregationalists; and it was provided that this proportion should be perpetually preserved! A provision which will be derided or applauded, according as it is regarded as an attempt to perpetuate existing diversities, or to defend and secure the liberty of religious opinion. In conformity with

¹ Life of Witherspoon prefixed to his works. MS. account of him. Miller's Retrospect. Dwight's Travels.

the spirit of all the other institutions of the province, it was farther declared by the collegiate charter that all the members of the college should for ever enjoy free, absolute and uninterrupted liberty of conscience ; and that protestants of any denomination whatever should be eligible to all the official appointments, except that of president of the trustees which was reserved exclusively for an individual of the baptist persuasion. In 1770 this college was removed to Providence.¹

Dartmouth College in New Hampshire was also founded in the present year. It derived its name from William Earl of Dartmouth one of its most considerable benefactors, and owed its existence to the active piety and benevolence of Eleazar Wheelock, minister of the parish of Lebanon in Connecticut. At Lebanon, Wheelock had many years before founded and assisted in conducting an academy destined especially to the instruction of missionaries who were to spread the gospel among the Indian tribes. Many of the children of the Indians themselves, received education at this school with so much apparent advantage, that sanguine expectations were formed of the efficacy of their assistance in persuading their countrymen to embrace christianity. Some of them displayed considerable genius, and acquired the elements of literature and science with as much facility as any of their white companions : but in the end, almost all of them renounced the advantages they had gained, and returned to the rudeness and freedom, as they esteemed it, of savage life. One of them, however, Sampson Occom a Mohican, persisting in his altered manners, advanced so far in knowledge and conducted himself with so much propriety, that he received a regular ordination to ministerial functions from the presbytery of Suffolk in Long Island. Shortly after, he became a missionary, and preached for a while to the Indians : but soon quitting a sphere where his change of manners exposed him to contempt and aversion, for one where it rendered him the object of interest and admiration, he began to preach among the European colonists to crowded and astonished audiences. Few persons had believed that an Indian was capable of preaching with intelligence and propriety ; and

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Dart-
mouth
College—

¹ Morse, Art. Rhode Island.

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multitudes regarded the fact with as much rapture as if it had been a miracle. Wheelock who had been for some time contemplating an enlargement of the plan of his academy, perceiving the impression that Occom produced, was struck with the idea of sending him along with another friend of his own, of European extraction, to England, to solicit benefactions for a college to be erected in the wilderness and devoted principally to the education of Indian youths. This well-devised project was executed in the year 1766, when the appearance of Occom in England excited a very powerful sensation in the minds of people of all ranks.¹ Here was demonstrative proof that attempts to convert the Indians were not misapplied: that an Indian could even maintain a life so blameless, display so much piety, and acquire so much knowledge, as to be judged worthy of receiving clerical ordination; and that (which, in reality, was no very significant circumstance) he could preach in such a manner as to engage the attention of a polite English audience. All doubt with regard to the propriety of Indian missions was now dispelled, and the most obstinate disbelief put to silence. Occom, indeed, possessed respectable, but not superior talents; real piety; and an eloquence of which the efficacy was aided by the peculiarity of his appearance and the simplicity of his manners. The deficiencies in his discourses to which persons of real and enlightened piety might have objected, were more than atoned in their eyes by consideration of his savage extraction: and the plainness with which he stated the most humbling truths of the gospel, was stripped of much of its offence to worldly and aristocratic hearers, by a manner which it was impossible to tax with vulgarity. In such circumstances, benefactions to the projected college were solicited with a success which exceeded the most sanguine expectations of Wheelock and his friends. The king declared himself a patron of the institution: his example was followed by many persons of distinction; and large sums of money, in aid of its design, were subscribed in England, Scotland, and America.

¹ "14th April, 1766. Yesterday a North American Indian, a convert to the christian religion, preached a sermon at the Rev. Dr. Chandler's meeting, in the Old Jewry, to a very numerous and polite audience." Chronicle of the Annual Register for 1766.

The money collected in England was placed in the hands of an association of trustees, of whom the Earl of Dartmouth president of the board of trade, and himself a considerable subscriber, was at the head; and the funds contributed in Scotland were committed to the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge. As an improvement on the original plan, it was determined to increase the number of youths of European extraction to be educated with the Indians both in literary and in agricultural exercises; that the Indians might be the more strongly invited to these employments by the prevalence of example, and induced to abate the prejudice which they had universally imbibed, that to delve the earth was a pursuit below the dignity of man. When, in the present year, the design of withdrawing the institution from Connecticut was finally announced, various offers of land for the establishment of the college were made by the neighbouring provinces. Wheelock with the approbation of the trustees in England, accepted the invitation of New Hampshire; and the township of Hanover on the eastern bank of Connecticut river, was finally appropriated as the most convenient site of the institution. In a charter of incorporation which was afterwards¹ granted by the governor of New Hampshire, Wheelock was declared the founder and president of Dartmouth college; a board of twelve trustees was constituted with perpetual succession; and the college was endowed with a landed estate of forty-four thousand acres in extent. The establishment proved highly advantageous to the European colonists of America: but its primary design of educating Indians and missionaries to the Indians, was soon completely frustrated, and abandoned in despair.² The number of Indian students and missionaries progressively decreased: but the number of lay students of European extraction was progressively aug-

¹ December 13.

² "You are not to suppose that any blame is, on that account, to be attached either to Dr. Wheelock, or to any others entrusted with this concern. An Indian student cannot be obtained, ordinarily, without extreme difficulty. What is at least as unfortunate, his habits are in a great measure fixed before he can be brought to a place of education, and more resemble those of a deer or a fox than those of a civilized youth. In the literal sense, he must be *tamed*; and to tame him is scarcely possible." Dwight.

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1769.

mented.¹ We have already remarked the high consideration which has been always most justly attached to the instruction and the instructors of youth in America, and especially in the New England provinces. The annals of these provinces during the eighteenth century, present us with many instances of men, who, after gaining distinguished eminence in the civil or military service of their country, have devoted a large proportion of their fortunes to the erection of seminaries of education, and in some instances assumed a personal share in the labours of tuition. The instruction of mankind is, doubtless, a more interesting task, and the beneficial influence of education on the mass of the community more visible and decisive in America than in European states. The connexion between moral improvement and temporal prosperity is peculiarly close in America,—where the field of exertion is boundless, and the competition of talent is free; and where every new fountain of knowledge sees the benefit of its streams reflected from an immediate expanse of public prosperity and private happiness.

The exertions of the celebrated George Whitefield the methodist in America, have already more than once engaged our attention. In this country, Whitefield was more desirous to awaken a general concern for religion, and to promote exertions of charity and benevolence on religious principles, than to found a distinct religious sect or association. Though originally the pupil of Wesley, he was shortly after his first visit to America, completely and even passionately estranged from the peculiar creed and the friendship of his spiritual preceptor. But farther experience of the world and of each other's characters and objects, substantially reunited these illustrious men: and though Whitefield to the last condemned the logical unsoundness of part of Wesley's doctrine, yet he regarded him with the highest love and veneration, and in his last illness desired that Wesley might preach his funeral sermon. Whitefield died in New England, about a year after the present period. During the far greater part of his career in America, Wesley, resigning this sphere of exertion to him, made no attempt to interfere with or disturb his

¹ Belknap. Holmes. Dwight.

labours. But in the present year, Wesley, animated by the success he had obtained in England, and accounting farther forbearance unnecessary, despatched for the first time two of the preachers of his peculiar doctrines and ordinances to America,—where their exertions, aided by subsequent coadjutors, were so successful, that within twenty-four years after, the Wesleyan methodists in America amounted in number to more than 60,000 persons, of whom about 16,000 were people of colour.¹ Methodism, from this epoch, spread widely in America: and piety and virtue, gravity and industry, moderation and contentment, were the fruits which invariably attended its progress. A great many slave-holders were induced by the methodist preachers to give liberty to their negroes.

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1769.
Method-
ism in
America—

A transit of the planet Venus across the sun's disk occurring this year, was observed from Harvard College by Winthrop, with science *truly so called*, because blended with the views and sentiments of religion. He was desirous to arrest the attention of the existing generation of his countrymen by the consideration of a celestial phenomenon which they could never again behold; and delivered two lectures on the subject in the college chapel, which at the request of his audience he afterwards published.²

It was in the present year also, that the celebrated Daniel Boon of North Carolina, now a colonel of militia, but more commonly known by his subsequent title of General in the service of America, commenced that course of adventurous and exploratory labour from which originated the settlement of the province of Kentucky. This territory was first visited in 1767 by John Finley, an inhabitant of North Carolina, and some fellow travellers, who circulated the most flattering accounts of it in America. In the present year, it was visited by Boon who with Finley and some other hunting associates, remained two years in the country, and entirely explored it.

Origin of
Ken-
tucky—

¹ Holmes.

² Eliot. Winthrop prefixed this motto to the publication of his lectures: *Agite mortales! et oculos in spectaculum vertite, quod huc usque spectaverunt perpaucissimi; spectaturi iterum sunt nulli.*

David Rittenhouse also made a scientific observation of the same celestial phenomenon, and at one stage of the spectacle is reported to have fainted from excess of delight and admiration. Dr. Rush.

B O O K
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1769.

Daniel
Boon.

In the following year, it was again visited and explored by James Knox and forty other Virginian hunters. The first permanent settlement in Kentucky was made by Boon and his family, accompanied by some of their Virginian and Carolinian friends, in the year 1773. This occupation was reckoned an infringement of the rights of the Cherokee Indians, whose claim to the territory had been recently recognised in a treaty between them and the British government; but it was legitimated about two years afterwards, by an extensive purchase of the land adjacent to Kentucky river, which was transacted with the Cherokees by Richard Henderson of Virginia. The colonization of the new territory was gradually extended by the resort of emigrants to it from several of the American states. Of all the early settlers the most renowned was Daniel Boon, whom we have already particularized. He was a native of Virginia, and a very remarkable specimen of human character and taste; contemplative, sagacious, and though little conversant, yet not wholly untinged with letters;¹ ardent and enterprising, yet enamoured of solitude; and no less distinguished by the strength and vigour of his frame, and the courage and constancy of his soul, than by the tenderness of his heart and the mildness of his manners. He had first removed from his native province to a desert part of North Carolina: and thence, accompanied by a small band of friends who shared his tastes and depended on his genius, he made his more famous emigration to Kentucky. These adventurers, attached to hunting and solitude, served as an advanced guard or body of pioneers to a race of more stationary colonists: commencing settlements at a great variety of spots, which they successively abandoned to other emigrants, from whose approaches and vicinity they receded. Bravely persisting in a course of life fraught with labour and danger, and yet attended with health, strength, and happiness unstained by

¹ All the accounts of him that I have seen, agree in representing him as wholly illiterate; and yet, many years after this period, he wrote an interesting and even elegant narrative of his early adventures in Kentucky, which is published in Imlay's *Topographical Description of the Western Territory of North America*, and also prefixed to Metcalf's *Collection of Narratives of Indian Warfare in the West*.

guilt,¹ they laid the foundation of a great and flourishing state, which, only fifteen years after its colonization first began, contained a population of more than eighty thousand souls.²

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1769.

¹ See Note XIV. at the end of the volume.

² Humphry Marshall's History of Kentucky. Narrative of the Adventures of Daniel Boon, from his first arrival in Kentucky in 1769, to the end of the year 1782. Holmes. Warden.

CHAPTER III.

Impolicy of the British Measures.—Affray between the Troops and the People of Boston.—Partial Repeal of the Tea-duty Act—unsatisfactory to the Americans.—Perplexity of the British Ministry.—Tucker's Scheme.—Writers on the American Controversy.—Insurrection of the Regulators in North Carolina.—Resistance in Rhode Island.—Governor Hutchinson.—Proceedings in Massachusetts—and in Virginia.—Attempt of Massachusetts to abolish the Slave-trade—resisted by the British Government.—British attempt to exact the Tea-duty—successfully resisted in America—tumultuously defeated at Boston.—Disclosure of Hutchinson's Letters.—Dismissal of Franklin from the British Service.—Taunting Language in England.—The Shakers.—European Emigrations to America.

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XI.

1769.

Impolicy
of the British
measures.

NOTHING could be more unwise or illiberal than the plan—if plan it may be called—of policy pursued by the British government in the controversy with America. It was varied only by alternations of unjust encroachment, haughty menace, and concession so tardily accorded, and so insolently expressed, as to be always inefficacious and frequently affronting. Where it announced vigour, it served to rouse and exasperate the Americans: where it affected lenity, it encouraged without conciliating them.¹ Its illiberality arose from the character of the king, and the temper of the British parliament and nation: its incoherence and imbecility may be traced partly to the composition and partly to the fluctuations in the British cabinet.² Each successive administration, inheriting the spirit

¹ Shortly after the present period, a party of English noblemen and gentlemen, travelling in Germany, were entertained at Potsdam by Frederick (styled the Great), king of Prussia, who took occasion to turn the discourse on the controversy between Britain and America. He said that it was a difficult thing to govern men by force at such a distance; that if the Americans should be beaten, which appeared a little problematical, still it would be next to impossible to draw a revenue from them by taxation; that if the English intended conciliation, their measures were too rough; and if subjugation, they were too gentle.

² The frequent changes of administration in the commencement of the reign of George the Third, have been ascribed with much show of reason, by Edmund Burke, to a design cherished at court, of destroying, by deceiving, disuniting, and disgracing the heads of the Whiggish aristocracy of England. See Burke's *Thoughts on the Causes of the existing Discontents*.

of its predecessors, or controlled by the temper of the court or nation, but regardless of the credit of the measures of former cabinets, and willing to evade any share of their unpopularity, repealed them with a readiness that inspirited, and yet with an insolence that provoked the colonists; assigning as the sole reasons of repeal motives of English interest and convenience, which arraigned the wisdom of the authors of those measures, saved the dignity of the repealing cabinet, and soothed the pride of the nation. The lessons so plainly taught by the introduction and the repeal of the Stamp Act, instead of operating as a warning were perversely used as a model, to which the British government, with steadfast pride, continued ever after to accommodate its policy. It seemed as if the first false step made by Grenville had pledged his country to persist in a dangerous experiment, in which the chances of success were additionally diminished by frequent changes in the instrumental process, arising mainly from the fluctuating composition of the cabinet. Those changes, it is true, were promoted in some degree by the violent resistance of the Americans to every form in which the overture of bereaving them of their liberties was repeated: but this circumstance was either never clearly perceived, or never justly appreciated by the British ministers, who, with amazing folly, believed that by abandoning an assault upon American liberty in one quarter, they would facilitate an attempt upon it in another. With strange disregard or misconception of the most notorious properties of human nature, they believed, or at least acted as if they believed, that all the indignant and courageous spirit provoked in a brave and free people by an obnoxious measure, must be instantly dissipated by its repeal; that provocations might be repeated without producing any increase or accumulation of hostile and impatient sentiment; and that it was always in their power by a change of policy, however tardy, however ungracious, however flattering to the efficacy of American resistance, at once to disband all the swelling host of angry passions from whose victorious energy they were compelled to retreat. Yet every observant man who has witnessed the fluctuations of a revolution, must have remarked that a nation excited to the point of violent resistance, is less gratified by immediate success than disquieted by a craving

BOOK demand for some object whereon to wreak its aroused energy
 XI. and unexpended passion. The entire effect of a deliberate
 1769. espousal and steady prosecution of lenient and liberal policy, it is impossible to define: but we may safely conclude that most probably it would have promoted the interest, and certainly it would not have impaired the honour and dignity of Great Britain. A uniform course of rigorous assertion of authority, on the other hand, would have accelerated a critical struggle, of which the retardation was highly favourable to the interests of American liberty. By the course (for truly it is an abuse of language to term it a plan) which was actually pursued, the Americans were thoroughly aroused by attacks on a great variety of points, animated by partial successes, strengthened by the lapse of time, and confirmed in obstinacy of purpose by protracted and indecisive contention.

Every principle of good policy deducible from the issue of the Stamp Act, manifestly enjoined that Britain should either desist altogether from attempts to tax America, or at least should impose no tax obnoxious to the general opposition, or defeasible by the general resistance of the colonists. A second and similar failure in an experiment of such importance, was by all means to be avoided: and Townsend, indeed, had vainly imagined that by his Tea-duty Act, he at once asserted the authority of Britain, and obviated the scruples and objections of America. But with the present ministry, this measure possessed no claim of parental or kindly regard sufficient to counterbalance the difficulties occasioned by the vehement opposition of the Americans, and the petitions of the British merchants who suffered from the non-importation agreements. Reckoning the authority which they administered defied, and actuated by a sense of offended dignity, they embraced vindictive measures against the colonists on account of the mode in which they had conducted their opposition to a statute for which the cabinet itself entertained little concern or respect. They even warmly opposed a proposition for the repeal of this statute, which, with strange inconsistency, was introduced in the close of the same session of parliament that had produced the violent address to the king against the province of Massachusetts. On this occasion, it was contended by the ministers and their friends, with sincere and exalted folly, that repeal

though warranted and even enjoined by general principles of national policy, was forbidden by the peculiar circumstances of the juncture; and Lord North, in particular, declared that "however prudence or policy may hereafter induce us to repeal the late act, I hope we shall never think of it *till we see America prostrate at our feet.*" Yet, no sooner was the parliamentary session concluded, than the ministers gave notice to the provincial agents and other persons interested in American affairs at London, that in the following year the grievances of America should be certainly redressed: and in the course of the summer, Lord Hillsborough, in circular letters to every colony, communicated the intention of himself and his colleagues "to propose in the next session of parliament taking off the duties on glass, paper, and colours, *upon consideration of such duties having been laid contrary to the true principles of commerce;*" and declared that the cabinet "entertained no design to propose to parliament to lay any farther taxes on America for the purpose of raising a revenue."

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III.
1769.

Lord Bottetourt, on receiving this intelligence, hastened to communicate it to the Virginian assembly (which he recon- voked) in a speech so courteous and conciliatory, and expressive of so much warmth of regard for America, that his language gave to the tidings it conveyed more influence than was due to their own intrinsic grace: and yet the assembly, though they returned an affectionate and respectful answer to his communication, expressed hope and confidence in a tone that implied fear and distrust. When the impression produced by Lord Bottetourt's gracious manners had subsided, they recorded in their journals a protest expressive of their conviction that partial remedies were incompetent to heal the existing evils. To the Americans in general, the intelligence transmitted by Lord Hillsborough was far from satisfactory. The purposed exception of the duty on tea from repeal, and the professed design of repealing the other duties upon mere commercial principles, excited anew their jealousy, and confirmed them in the opinion that the ground-work of the present grievances was not to be abandoned, but to be reserved for a future opportunity of fresh essays for the imposition of internal taxes. No sooner was the tenor of Lord Hillsborough's letter made known in Massachusetts, than the mer-

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1759.

chants and traders of Boston, at a general meeting, unanimously resolved that the projected repeal was intended merely to gratify the British manufacturers, and was inadequate to repair or remedy the grievances of America; and they confirmed their former agreement to import no more goods from Britain till the late revenue acts should be totally repealed. So little of pacific influence, indeed, did Lord Hillsborough's communication exert, that, in Pennsylvania, a much stronger demonstration of aversion was elicited by the terms of the proposed repeal than had been provoked by the measure itself which was to be partially abrogated. A committee of the principal merchants of Philadelphia, in a letter which they

Nov. 25.

addressed to the merchants of London, declared that the system of government developed by all the measures of the present reign, was such as *the Americans* could not tamely submit to; that this system tended to sap the foundations of liberty, justice, and property in America, and to strip her citizens of every blessing essential to the dignity and happiness of human life; that these were not merely the reasonings of speculative politicians, but the sentiments and language of the people in general; for in no country was the love of liberty more deeply rooted, or the knowledge of the rights of freemen more widely diffused than in America; that nothing short of a repeal of all the late revenue acts, and the restoration of that state of things which existed prior to the commencement of these innovations, now could or would satisfy the minds of the people; that Britain by her fleets and armies might overawe the towns, and by her severe restrictions, her admiralty courts and custom-house officers, ruin the trade of America; but that while every American farmer was a freeholder, the spirit of liberty would continue to prevail, and all attempts to divest them of the privileges of freemen must be attended with consequences injurious both to the colonies and to the parent state.¹

1770.

The little confidence which the Americans reposed in the British cabinet and its promises of a redress of grievances, was still farther impaired by a change which the ministry soon after underwent, in the secession of Lord Camden, who resigned the seals, and of Dunning the celebrated constitu-

January.

¹ Gordon. Bradford. Burk's Virginia. Hutchinson.

tional lawyer and friend of liberty, who had been solicitor-general. But before the projected measure of the cabinet was carried into effect, a circumstance occurred in America, fitted to counteract the efficacy even of a much greater stretch of conciliation. The British senate had been assured by Franklin that a military force despatched to America, though it would not find, would easily create a rebellion; but more credit had been given by the present ministers to the representations of Bernard, Hutchinson, Oliver, Paxton, and other partizans of prerogative, that an impending rebellion could be averted only by the exhibition of military power. Ever since the arrival of the troops at Boston, the inhabitants of this city had regarded the presence of these instruments of despotic authority with an increasing sense of indignity; and reciprocal insults and injuries paved the way for a tragical event which made a deep and lasting impression of resentment in America. An affray which commenced between an inhabitant of the town and a private soldier, having been gradually extended by the participation of the fellow-citizens of the one and the comrades of the other, terminated to the advantage of the soldiers, and inflamed the people with a passionate desire of vengeance, which, it has been justly or unjustly surmised, was fomented by some persons of consideration, who hoped that the removal of the troops would be promoted by a conflict between them and the towns-people. A corresponding animosity was cherished by the soldiers, some of whom had been severely hurt in the affray. They began to carry clubs in their hands when they walked in the streets, gave other symptoms of willingness to renew the conflict, and evinced the most insulting contempt for a people to whom their presence was already sufficiently offensive. After the lapse of three days from the first affray, and after various symptoms had betrayed that some dangerous design was harboured on both sides, a party of soldiers while under arms in the evening were assaulted by a body of the people, who pressed upon them, struck some of them, loaded them with insults, terming them *bloody-backs* (in allusion to the practice of flogging in the British army) and cowards, and tauntingly dared them to fire. The conduct of the soldiers was far from blameless. They had previously by studied insult provoked

C H A P.
III.
1770.

March 2.

March 5.
Affray between the troops and the people of Boston.

B O O K the rage of the people, and they now exasperated by retort-
 XI. ing the verbal outrages, which they possessed the most fatal
 1770. means of avenging. One soldier, at length, on receiving a
 blow, fired at his assailant; and a single discharge from six
 others succeeded. Three of the citizens were killed, and five
 dangerously wounded. The town became instantly a scene of
 the most violent commotion; the drums beat to arms; thou-
 sands of the inhabitants flocked together, and beheld the
 bloody spectacle of their slaughtered fellow-citizens with a
 rage that would have lengthened and aggravated the calami-
 ties of the night, if Hutchinson the deputy-governor and
 the other civil authorities, had not promptly interfered, and,
 arresting the soldiers who had fired, together with the officer
 under whose immediate command they had been, and loudly
 blaming them for firing without the order of a magistrate,
 held forth to the people the hope of more deliberate ven-
 geance, and prevailed with them to disperse. The next
 March 6. morning Hutchinson convoked the council, which was en-
 gaged in discussing the unhappy event, when a message
 was received from a general assemblage of the citizens,
 declaring it to be their unanimous opinion, that nothing
 could rationally be expected to restore the peace of the
 town and prevent bloodshed and carnage, but the imme-
 diate removal of the troops. After some hesitation, Hutchin-
 son and the commander of the forces, who each desired to
 throw the responsibility of this measure upon the other, per-
 ceiving that it was inevitable, agreed to it; and the commo-
 tion subsided. One of the wounded men died; and the four
 bodies of the slain were conducted to the grave with every ce-
 remonial expressive of public honour and respect by an im-
 mense concourse of people, followed by a long train of car-
 riages belonging to the principal inhabitants of the town.
 Captain Preston, who had commanded the party of troops
 engaged in the fatal affair, and all the soldiers who had
 fired, were committed to jail, and arraigned on an indict-
 ment of murder. Their trial was awaited with earnest
 expectation, and for some time with passionate hope or stern
 conviction in the public mind that it would terminate fatally
 for the accused. Considering the mighty cloud of passion,
 prejudice, and exaggeration, through which their conduct was

viewed, such an event would have merited more regret than C H A P. reprobation. Captain Preston, though entirely innocent, was III.
exposed to peculiar danger from the generosity with which 1770.
in vindicating his men when first reproached by the civil authorities, he forgot to exculpate himself from the charge implied in their questions, of having authorized and ordered the firing. But the defence of the prisoners was undertaken by two of the most eminent lawyers and determined patriots in Massachusetts,—Josiah Quincy whom we have already noticed, and John Adams a kinsman and intimate friend of Samuel Adams, and who afterwards held the high office,—the highest that a champion and patron of human liberty and happiness has ever filled,—of president of the United States of America. These men were not less eager to guard the justice and honour of their country from reproach, than to defend its liberty from invasion; and exerted themselves in defence of their clients with a manly eloquence and reasoning worthy of, and worthily appreciated by the integrity, justice, and good sense of the jury. Preston was acquitted; as were all the soldiers except two, who were found guilty of manslaughter. This event was highly honourable to Massachusetts. Some British politicians, indeed, are said to have viewed it merely as an act of timidity, or a mechanical adherence to legal rules. But, (as an ingenious American writer¹ has justly observed) in this forbearance of the people, on an occasion where truth and reason, combating violent passion, pronounced the bias of their feelings unjust and wrong, there was truly exhibited a force and firmness of character which promised to render them unyielding and invincible when supported by a sense of justice and right. Though the issue of the trial was generally approved in Massachusetts, the anniversary of the *massacre*, as it was termed, was observed with much solemnity; and the ablest of the provincial orators were successively employed to deliver annual harangues calculated to preserve the irritating remembrance fresh in the popular mind.

Various affrays, though of a less serious description, occurred between the British troops at New York and the po-

¹ Cooper, the celebrated Novelist.

BOOK
XI.

1770.

April.
Partial re-
peal of the
Tea-duty
Act -

palace of this city, where much discontent was excited by the conduct of the assembly, in at last making provision, though only occasionally and reluctantly, for the accommodation of the soldiers. Some violent writings having been published on this subject, addressed to *the betrayed inhabitants of New York*, M'Dougal a Scotchman, the publisher, was committed to jail on a charge of sedition: but his imprisonment was alleviated and dignified by visits and demonstrations of regard which he received from great numbers of people, including some of the principal gentlemen and ladies of the province: and the government finally liberated him without having ventured to bring him to trial.¹

In conformity with Lord Hillsborough's promise, the duties which had been imposed on glass, paper, and painters' colours, were now repealed by an act of parliament conceived in precisely the same terms as the law that repealed the Stamp Act. The duty on tea was continued, to preserve the claim of parliament to sovereign legislative authority in America. This reservation, like the declaratory act which accompanied the repeal of the stamp duty, left the grand cause of contention in its entire force; for it was not the particulars, but the principle of taxation to which the colonists were most stubbornly opposed. Even supposing, which there is great reason to doubt, that the breach between the parent state and her colonies could yet have been repaired, the present measure so far from being adequate to repair, was calculated to widen it. Enough was yielded to encourage the Americans; enough retained to exasperate them. With strange inconsistency, the ministers declared in the House of Commons, in reply to a proposition of some of the members for a total repeal of the duties, that although these duties were absurd and impolitic, and although the repeal of them had become urgently desirable in order to put an end to the American combinations against importing English goods, yet that the insolence of these combinations and of the other proceedings of the colonists had been such, that a total repeal was incompatible with the dignity of Great Britain. Thus, with unhappy logic was it argued, that the dignity of Great Britain required her to

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1770, Holmes, Bradford, Gordon, Hutchinson, Franklin's Memoirs.

persist in a course impolitic and untenable ; and that American resistance while it enjoined a partial departure from this course, necessitated also a partial adherence to it. The ministers openly declared that the language of the Americans became every day bolder and more violent : a truth which they who thus propounded it, seemed to be incapable of appreciating. For, with such rising spirit and temper as the Americans displayed, it was evident that an accommodation with them daily became more difficult ; and that at every successive stage of the controversy their demands would be both enlarged in substance and aggravated in the extent of their encroachment upon British dignity. Such a storm of passion, indeed, had been raised in America, as was not likely to subside at once, even though the whole causes of quarrel had been suddenly removed ; and such views had been awakened in the breasts of many of the colonists as only the most flattering advantages were likely to dispel. The popular leaders, gratified by the importance and interest of the position to which the controversy advanced them, were by no means disposed to overrate the advantages of any particular scheme for its accommodation. Some, doubtless, cherished the design of independence ;—a purpose which the royal ministers with great impolicy openly imputed in parliament to the Americans in general ;—and some who harboured no such wish or project were yet desirous that their past efforts should be as successful as possible, and opposed all accommodation not founded on an entire removal of American grievances. In holding a controversy with Britain, America practically approached the condition of an independent commonwealth : and while the ambitious design of realizing this idea was suggested to her in the language of insult and menace by the British cabinet, the prospect of it was manifestly regarded with much complacency by other European states. It was about this time, as Franklin relates, that several of the foreign ambassadors at London, assiduously cultivated his acquaintance, and treated him as one of their own diplomatic body.¹ The danger of a quarrel with

¹ In relating this, he imputes it to "the desire they have, from time to time, of hearing something of American affairs, an object become of importance in foreign courts, who begin to hope that Britain's alarming power will be diminished by the defection of her colonies."

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 1770. America ought to have been impressed with especial force on the British government in the present year by the insolent aggression to which Spain was prompted, doubtless in part by the embarrassment of her rival in American empire. In the midst of peace between the two crowns, a Spanish force violently dispossessed the English of a settlement they had formed in Falkland's Islands ; and accompanied this outrage with the most insulting marks of contempt for the British flag. But the British government, instead of being prompted by its embarrassments effectually to conciliate the Americans, was induced by them tamely to submit to the indignity sustained from Spain, and to accept a species of apology which was very unsatisfactory to the national pride.

It was a canon of ancient wisdom, that a sovereign withholding the just rights of his people, gave them rights to whatever they might please to desire.¹ We have seen how much the views and demands of the Americans had recently been enlarged. The discussion of British authority in one point, lowered its influence in all : and the flame kindled by one peculiar topic of complaint, was gradually extended till it embraced every other. The Americans were now determined to resist the external no less than the internal taxation of parliament : and nothing short of a repeal of all the late duties, and a thorough revision and modification of the trade laws, had the most remote chance of restoring harmony between them and the parent state. Some effect, indeed, was produced by the present measure of partial repeal : and contributed, perhaps, to delude the British ministers with the hope that their policy was successful. The general plan of non-importation was now relinquished by the Americans : but this in truth was a mere indulgence of their own convenience, and was most erroneously regarded, if it was accounted a corresponding concession to the interests of Britain. Resolutions were passed in the principal commercial towns, that no tea should be imported while the duty was continued. Associations were formed in some parts to drink none but smuggled tea ; and in others, to abstain from the use of tea altogether. The assembly of Massachusetts expressed

unsatisfac-
 tory to the
 Ameri-
 cans.

¹ *Omnia dat qui justa negat.*

some displeasure at the departure from the general non-im-
 portation agreement; and passed resolutions for promoting
 industry, frugality, and domestic manufactures. In a message
 to Hutchinson, who, by adjourning the assembly to Cam-
 bridge and by a punctilious deference to the wishes and au-
 thority of the British government, had already involved him-
 self in warm disputes with them, they insisted on the right
 of the people to *appeal to Heaven* in a controversy with rulers
 who abused their authority: they appointed a solemn fast to
 seek the direction and blessing of God: and being informed
 by Hutchinson that he could not, consistently with the in-
 structions of the king, assent to an income-tax which they
 had voted, unless they would qualify it so far as to exempt
 the emoluments of the royal commissioners of customs from
 its operation, they answered with passionate asperity—"We
 know of no commissioners of his majesty's customs, nor of
 any revenue his majesty has a right to establish in *North
 America*. We know and feel a tribute levied and extorted
 from those, who, if they have property, have a right to the
 absolute disposal of it."²

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 III.
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Among other subjects of discontent and apprehension in
 America, there was one which was supplied by the policy of
 the prelates of England, who with persevering importunity,
 continued to urge the British government to establish an epis-
 copal hierarchy in the colonies. These applications, of which
 intelligence was procured by the provincial agents, excited
 the general disgust of the Americans, who beheld in the pro-
 ject only a measure instrumental to the aggrandizement of
 British prerogative, and the multiplication of royal function-
 aries whose emoluments were to be derived from the American
 civil list. In the year 1768, the assembly of Massachusetts
 declared that a general alarm was excited among the inha-
 bitants of the province by the projected imposition upon them
 of that very ecclesiastical system from whose tyranny their
 fathers had retired to America: and in the present year, the
 assembly of Virginia passed a vote of grateful thanks to some
 gentlemen of this province who had distinguished themselves

¹ This year died in Massachusetts the ex-governor Shirley.

² Ann. Reg. for 1770 and for 1771. Franklin's Private Correspondence. Gor-
 don. Holmes.

BOOK XI. by their writings and their other exertions to animate their countrymen to resist the introduction of episcopacy. The

1771. British ministers however had no intention of acting at this juncture in compliance with the impolitic counsel of the bishops. Distracted and embarrassed by domestic dissensions, the quarrel with Spain, and the disappointing and mischievous result of every measure relative to the colonies that had latterly been adopted, they were at present averse to any active interference in American affairs. Afraid to advance or enforce the pretensions of the parent state, and ashamed to recede from them, they wished to take no new step with regard to America till the harmony which they vainly expected from their last measure should be completely established. But the delusiveness of this expectation was clearly perceived by some British politicians; and not long after the repeal act of the preceding year had been passed, an attempt was made in the House of Commons to effect a radical change of that policy which was visibly tending to produce the revolt of America. Resolutions were proposed for restoring all matters relative to American trade and finance, to the state in which they had been at the commencement of the king's reign. The strongest argument in support of this proposition, was a simple recapitulation of the late measures, and of their undeniable results:—taxes imposed, repealed, re-imposed, and repealed again—an attempt to raise a revenue in America for the relief of the burdened people of England, producing only an aggravation of the distress of the English merchants and manufacturers—schemes of fortifying the British dominion in America, issuing in a state of things that betokened its entire overthrow—assemblies dissolved for contumacy, and reconvoked without having made the slightest submission—multitudes denounced as guilty of sedition and even of treason, and yet not an individual tried or punished for either of these offences—troops sent to prevent a rebellion, but actually serving to provoke it—every branch of the British government degraded; and the resentment and resistance of America progressively augmenting and invariably triumphant. The ministers, overwhelmed with doubt and perplexity, shrunk from the discussion to which they were invited; and without attempting to answer or deny

Perplexity
of the Bri-
tish minis-
try.

these representations, obtained from a majority of the house a rejection of the proposed resolutions. A proposition of similar resolutions made to the House of Lords by the Duke of Richmond, met with a similar fate.¹

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Only one Englishman at this crisis had the sagacity to perceive that the views and pretensions of Britain and America were quite incompatible, and that, in the warmth of the controversy, these conflicting views had been so far disclosed and matured, that a cordial reconciliation was no longer possible. This was Dr. Josiah Tucker dean of Gloucester, one of the most learned and ingenious writers on commerce and political economy that England has ever produced. With a boldness equal to the comprehension of his view, he openly recommended in several tracts which he published about this time, an immediate separation of the two countries and a formal recognition of the independence of the American states.² The doctrine which he inculcated was, that when colonies have reached such a degree of wealth and population as to be able to support themselves, the authority of the parent state whence they emanated must necessarily be trivial and precarious; and that consequently, in all cases of this kind it is the dictate of prudence and sound policy that the parties instead of waiting to be separated by emergent quarrel and strife, should dissolve their connexion by mutual consent. Such he contended was now the situation of the British colonies in America: and in urging upon Britain the consequent policy of releasing them from farther control, he maintained with much force and good sense that this measure would be attended with a great alleviation of the national expense, without any real diminution of the national gain. For this unpalatable counsel, the doctor was regarded as a wild visionary, both by those of his countrymen who supported and by those who opposed the measures of their government.³ But time illustrated his views, and honoured his wisdom.

Tucker's
Scheme.

¹ Bradford. Ann. Reg. for 1770, and for 1771. Franklin's Private Correspondence.

² The voluntary return of the Americans (disunited among themselves, and tired with expatriating in the vague expanse of boundless freedom) to British domination, was predicted as the certain effect of Tucker's scheme, in some humorous verses, ascribed to Soame Jenyns, and published in the Annual Register for 1776.

³ Tucker's Tracts—in the British Museum. Watkin's Life of the Duke of York. This author relates that, after the independence of America had been irrevocably

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Writers on
the Ame-
rican con-
troversy.

Several eminent writers had preceded Tucker in publicly expressing and defending their sentiments and opinions with regard to the points involved in the controversy between Britain and America : and many continued to follow in succession on both sides of the question, till force was employed to decide what reason had been unable to adjust. The most distinguished writers in support of the prerogative of Britain were Adam Smith, Dr. Johnson, and George Chalmers. Of the writers on the other side, the most eminent of the native Americans were Otis,¹ Bland, Dickenson, and Franklin,—and of their European coadjutors, Doctors Price, Priestley, and Witherspoon, Thomas Paine, and the ex-governor Pownall. It is impossible that we should here undertake a critical analysis of the works of these writers : and yet some notice seems proper of the more remarkable features of the controversy which they conducted. Smith, while he maintained that it was reasonable that the colonies should contribute to the support of the general burdens of the empire, recommended though less positively that they should be represented in the British parliament ; and deprecated, in every event, a war with them, in which Britain was, he declared, not only unlikely to succeed, but certain that every drop of blood that flowed was the blood of those whom she called or desired to call her subjects.² Otis, on the other hand, while he maintained the right of America, in her actual circumstances, to be exempted from British taxation, acknowledged that this right would be superseded by a participation in the privilege of sending representatives to the British parliament :³ and Dickenson, who had roused the strongest spirit of resistance to the British claims, withstood for a while the purpose which this spirit produced, and incurred a temporary loss of popularity by firmly resisting upon principle the project of independence.⁴

conceded by the treaty of Paris, George the Third, meeting Tucker at Gloucester, observed to him “ Mr. Dean, you were in the right, and we were all in the wrong.” Burke in the House of Commons, termed Tucker’s scheme “ a childish one.” There was indeed something like childishness in the supposition that a scheme fraught with so much liberality and moderation, would ever be adopted by a prince of arbitrary disposition and by a haughty nation.

¹ Otis’ political life was terminated this year by insanity, occasioned, it is said, by the intensity of his exertions in behalf of American liberty.

² Smith’s *Wealth of Nations*, book iv. chap. 7.

³ Otis’ “ *Rights of the Colonies Asserted and Proved.*”

⁴ Rogers’ *Biographical Dictionary*.

The inefficiency of Dickenson's powers when exerted to restrain his countrymen from revolt, contrasted with their efficacy when displayed in the publication of the "Farmer's Letters," illustrates the nature and limits of the influence exercised on the councils of America by her political writers and orators. They were totally incompetent to guide or control the tendency of public opinion; and it was only when exerted in harmony and concurrence with its fixed bent, that their genius was able to impel or modify the public resolutions. They frequently seemed to command a popular assembly or community, when they merely animated its rooted determination; and became its leaders, while they conducted it in the path which it was already prepared to tread. Dr. Johnson, whose views were prescribed, as his pamphlet was revised by the British ministers, contended with great vigour and ingenuity, but in an arrogant, overbearing, and disdainful tone heightened by the customary swell of his diction, that the colonists, by the terms of their charters and the peculiarity of their situation, purchased the advantage of defence from a powerful state during their national infancy, in return for subjection to its legislative dominion, of which the exercise was enlarged in proportion to the capacity of the subject state to endure it. He maintained that the claim of America to be exempted from parliamentary taxation, and to co-operate with the rest of the British empire in defraying the national expenses through no other channel than that of her own provincial assemblies, was a claim which supposed dominion without authority, and subjects without subordination.¹ Chalmers referred exclusively to the colonial charters, and to the opinions of lawyers and antiquarians in support of the British pretensions;² and, like Johnson, overlooked or undervalued the consideration, that no prerogative, however accommodated to the language of ancient parchments, or sanctioned by the critical exposition of legal logic, could be otherwise regarded than as an encroachment on their national liberty by the

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¹ Johnson's "Taxation no Tyranny," and "The Patriot." In Moore's *Life of Sheridan*, are preserved some notes composed by this distinguished orator and wit, for an answer which he projected, but never completed, to Dr. Johnson's argumentation.

² Chalmers' "Political Annals of the Colonies," and "Introduction to the History of the Revolution of the Colonies."

BOOK Americans, if it was exerted in opposition to the general current of their sentiments and prepossessions. Submission to power, in an instance or to an extent generally odious to the feelings of a people or party, however reasonably or plausibly connected with the theory of their municipal constitution or the peculiar maxims of their political creed, cannot fail to be resisted by the powerful dictates of freer reason and universal sense:—as indeed the British government might have learned from various circumstances attending the revolution of 1688, and particularly from the important though temporary accession of the churchmen and tories to that memorable transaction. In the present controversy, as well as in that which was engendered by the British revolution, we are surprised to find how frequently frivolous topics are introduced on both sides, how seldom real motives are fully avowed by either, and how often both parties seem to warp their principles in order to embarrass their antagonists or to fortify themselves by alliances with prudential considerations. Though the Americans were generally animated by a strong aversion to British prerogative, a jealous sense of dependence and ill-treatment, and an earnest hope and purpose to be free,—few of their advocates declined to accept the challenge of their adversaries to stake the issue of this controversy on a mixed and confused discussion of the principles of the British constitution, and of the provincial usages and the legal import of the provincial charters: and according as one or other of these sources of authority was thought to administer support to British prerogative or American liberty, were they alternately cited and derided on both sides, in the conduct of this argumental contest. It had been more creditable for both parties, if the controversy could have been conducted without any reference whatever to the provincial charters. For, if it was absurd that the British government, which had on some occasions modified, and in various instances attempted to subvert altogether those charters, should yet assert their absolute inviolability in so far as they seemed to confirm its disputed prerogative over the colonies,—it was no less unreasonable that the colonists should appeal to their charters alone, wherever their tenor, unaltered by authority, seemed to favour the colonial pleas, and yet appeal *from* them to the principles of British

liberty, or with more latitude to the rights of human nature, in every instance in which the original terms or subsequent alterations of the charters seemed to warrant the adverse pretensions. Among other argumentative artifices of the partizans of America, they continually palliated and underrated the acts of tumultuary violence by which the vindictive measures of the British government were provoked: maintaining with great vehemence but little veracity that the disturbances in America were quite insignificant, and that Britain, with tyrannical injustice, punished whole provinces for the riotous proceedings of a handful of obscure and ignorant men.

Price, in defending the claims of the Americans, relied on the principles, more or less fixed, of the British constitution, of which he supposed America to be entitled to as ample a share as England herself. To him it seemed contrary to reason that the British dominions should spread without a corresponding enlargement of the prevalence of the British constitution.¹ Franklin at first accounted that a supreme power over every part of the British empire resided in the parliament, and as a witness in behalf of America at the bar of the House of Commons, admitted the legitimate exertion of this power in the regulation of commerce and the imposition of external taxes. Altered circumstances and farther inquiry led him to abandon this ground: and he advised the assembly of Boston to acknowledge a dependence on the king alone, and to desist from and repudiate its unmeaning professions of recognising "a due subordination" to parliament. His countrymen entered readily into this altered view, which indeed many of them had anticipated: and it was at the present period the general sentiment of the Americans that all the control which parliament had ever before exercised over them, was either an unjust usurpation or a temporary guardianship which the national maturity of America rendered no longer legitimate. In witty and ironical compositions which he furnished to the public journals, Franklin assimilated the pretensions of Britain over America to such claims as the king of Prussia or other German potentates might arrogate over the British people as descendants of emigrants from Germany. Yet, accustomed to

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¹ Price's Observations on Civil Liberty. For this pamphlet Dr. Price received the thanks of the Corporation of London. Ann. Reg. for 1776.

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consider himself an officer of the British crown,—familiar with the greatness and power of Britain,—and cherishing a complacent regard for the grandeur of an empire which his genius had dignified and his counsels had enlarged,—it was with long reluctance that he contemplated the idea of its dismemberment, and the perilous extremity of American revolt and civil war; and this reluctance was increased by the conviction he entertained that industry and economy of themselves would render the Americans practically, as the progress of population must render them irresistibly independent of Britain, and enable them without a struggle either to dissolve their connexion with her or to dictate the terms of it. His views and reasonings on this subject were often nice, subtle, and fine-spun; resembling rather the visions of a speculative philosopher, than the judgments of an experienced politician. His eagerness to conciliate and temporize was so much more visible to the British court, than the concurrent and far more deeply inlaid sentiment which he cherished of jealous and determined attachment to his countrymen and their cause, as to have induced many persons in England to question, though unjustly, his sincerity. In reality, he was a great deal more sincere than consistent. Labouring to extenuate in the eyes of the British ministers the ebullitions of violence in America, he prevailed upon his own mind to underrate the significance of these symptoms; and even after insult and outrage from the British government had closed his hopes of promotion in its service, he persisted in clinging to the delusive idea that harmony might be restored, and the dismemberment of the British empire prevented.¹ The views and sentiments of Paine, though

¹ Franklin's Memoirs and Correspondence. On his return to Pennsylvania from England in 1775, Franklin as one of the Trustees of the College of Philadelphia, proposed as the subject of a prize Essay to the students "The Motives to, and the Advantages of, a perpetual Union between Britain and her Colonies." His own view of those motives and advantages was thus expressed:—"Britain will derive advantage from our assistance in war, and our employment of her merchants and manufacturers in peace: while her government will be strengthened by the disposal of profitable posts and places among us. On our side, we have to expect the protection she can afford us, and the advantage of a common umpire in our disputes. By a prudent moderation and kindness on her part, and by a decent behaviour on ours, bearing with the infirmities of her government, as we would with those of an aged parent, though firmly asserting our privileges, and declaring that we mean at a proper time to vindicate them, this advantageous union may still be long continued."

supported with admirable vigour and a fiery eloquence well calculated to warm and arouse, were founded on principles (if indeed any principles can be traced at their foundation) the most vague and indeterminate. A native of England, this ingenious man, prior to his removal to America, had beheld only the artificial and complicated municipal frames of European commonwealths, wherein the general rights of mankind were nearly buried under the privileges and trappings of oligarchy; and the principles of liberty formed a theory traceable (if at all) only by difficult and laborious research amidst established usages that widely departed from its obvious dictates. In America, he had found a closer correspondence between the established municipal systems and those principles of liberty which he regarded as the genuine offspring of truth, sense, and nature; and with ardent hope and desire, he hailed the prospect of a higher development of those principles, from the rejection and overthrow of the opposite principles of regal and aristocratical pre-eminence which rather embarrassed the theory than influenced the practical effect of the American institutions. Paine was an enthusiastic votary of the temporal happiness and liberty of mankind, but ignorant and regardless of their highest duties and noblest ends. Though as yet guiltless of those blasphemous impieties which have rendered his name odious to christian ears, he was already a disbeliever of revealed religion, of which the doctrines had been taught to him in his youth by ignorant and weak-minded instructors and discredited to him in his manhood by the cant and grimace of hypocrites and tyrants; and some glimmerings of this sentiment were discernible in the essays by which he animated the Americans to resist Britain and contend for liberty.¹ For this he underwent a severe and indignant censure from Witherspoon, who was as much offended to see the rights separated from the duties of man, liberty made a cloak for licentiousness, and the interests of America linked with infidelity, as Paine had been offended with a religion dishonoured by hypocritical professors and tyrannical patrons. No writer argued in defence of American resistance and revolt

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¹ Paine's American Crisis.

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¹ Witherspoon's Sermons, and Address to the Scottish residents in America.

were intended (in so far as their application might be supposed universal) to inculcate the *duty* without defining the *limits* of obedience to civil authority, and to recommend a peaceable, moderate, and contented disposition, and aver-
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 seness to wanton or unnecessary change.¹ John Wesley was at first opposed, upon religious principles, to American resistance, and in letters to the methodists in America, endeavoured without effect to dissuade them from embracing the cause of their country. But he very soon changed his opinion, and even encouraged the Americans in revolt by expressions of his good wishes and approbation.²

All great passions, in their effervescence, exert a contagious influence: and there is something in the aspect of a people gallantly struggling for freedom and indignantly resisting the oppression of a stronger and predominant power, wonderfully calculated to interest the favour and kindle the ardour of liberal and energetic minds. The American controversy, like every other revolutionary vortex, absorbed a great variety of human sentiment and character. Virtue and vice, patriotism and licentiousness, ambitious genius, and wild enthusiasm, ever combine to warm the feelings and multiply the numbers of the partizans and promoters of revolutionary change. At such seasons, genius and talent apart from every other virtue except devotion to the public cause, bear a high premium in

¹ If kings would be content to abstain from interference with the religion and the religious institutions of their subjects, they might derive the full benefit of the quiescent agency of christianity on the human mind. By uniting *the state* with *the church*, sovereigns contrive to make the church partly responsible for the errors of their own civil policy, and defeat the efficacy of the religious precepts which enjoin submission and moderation, by taking the preaching of these precepts into their own hands, and counteracting their preaching by their own example. When they who style themselves the human heads of the church, are free to press and pursue every temporal privilege and political claim; shall the members be deprived of the same latitude? Thus men must feel: and unhappily, princes cultivating an alliance with the church, have been much more successful in discrediting religion than in strengthening their own pretensions. A political church introduces a confusion into men's notions, and with one hand stirs the passions on which it seeks to pour oil with the other.

May not we apply to communities, the apostolical injunctions to individual slaves;—to abide patiently in the lot which only violence, convulsion and bloodshed could alter, if (rooted and fixed as it was) it could be altered at all;—and which yet are qualified by the permissive direction, “If thou mayest be free, use it rather?”

² Southey's *Life of Wesley*. Wesley's niece, Mrs. Wright, the celebrated modeller in wax, was born in Pennsylvania, and warmly attached to the interests of America, which she appears to have promoted by exertions more politic than strictly honourable. Franklin's *Private Correspondence*.

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public estimation: and the general esteem is apt too fondly to consecrate the qualifications which seem peculiarly and immediately to redound to the general honour and advantage.¹ The talents and passions of ardent minds enrol themselves in the public service: and men whose eloquence has merely followed and adorned the stream of popular sentiment and opinion, are too often hailed with exaggerated encomium as its authors or guides. It was happy for the Americans that during the whole of their revolutionary controversy, mere talent never obtained an influence exceeding or even approaching the authority of sense and virtue. The bold and glowing sallies of genius and enthusiasm were admired: but the public though warmed was not dazzled by them; and generally derived its policy from the moderate but sound and steady counsels of wise and good men. The Americans were generally imbued with the persuasion (which some notable events in their subsequent experience tended to illustrate and confirm) that a nation can never be safely indifferent to the moral characters of its political chiefs and leaders; and that private virtue and prudence afford the surest test of the purity and stability of patriotic purpose and resolution.

Insurrec-
tion of the
Regula-
tors in
North
Carolina.

North Carolina had been for some time past convulsed with disorders which at length broke out in an insurrection so completely disconnected with the general agitation by which America was pervaded, that the insurgents afterwards formed one of the strongest bodies of partizans who, dissenting from their countrymen in general, adhered to and supported the pretensions of Britain. And yet in reality it was the corruption or incapacity of functionaries of the British government, that produced the very evils of which those persons now complained. We have formerly remarked¹ the abuses which prevailed in the civil administration of this province, and which the appointment of Tryon to be its governor was expected to cure. This expectation was disappointed. One of the most irritating abuses was the exaction of exorbitant fees by public officers on all legal proceedings, and parti-

¹ It appears to have been a proverbial saying in ancient Greece, that "Civil Discord is a season in which the highest reputation may be gained by the worst men." Plutarch, *Life of Alexander*.

² *Ante*, Book X. chap. vi.

cularly on all the deeds and ceremonies requisite by law to the validity of sales and acquisitions of landed property. Tryon, in conformity with his instructions, issued a proclamation against this abuse: but as he either negligently or corruptly confined himself to publishing without attempting to execute a purposed reform, his conduct served only to sanction without curing or alleviating the general discontent. In addition to this grievance, a number of the sheriffs and of the receivers of the provincial taxes were permitted to continue long indebted to the provincial treasury for a heavy arrear of public monies which they had collected but delayed to account for; and it was not unreasonably surmised that the weight of the taxes was aggravated by this misapplication of their produce. An association was gradually formed by a great number of poor colonists who assumed the title of *Regulators*, and who entered into a compact which they ratified by oath, to pay no taxes whatever till all exorbitant fees were abolished, and official embezzlement punished and prevented. The general ill-humour was greatly increased by a vote of the assembly of a large sum of money to build a palace for the governor,—as an expression of public gratitude for the repeal of the Stamp Act; and by the imposition for this purpose of a tax which began to operate at the very time when the parliamentary impost on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colours was promulgated. Tryon with great difficulty pacified the Regulators by promises which were only delusively fulfilled. Fanning, one of the recorders of conveyances of land, was tried on six indictments for extortion, and found guilty in every instance. The royal judges, however, sentenced him to pay only the fine of one penny—a sentence more insulting to the people than the boldest injustice in openly absolving him would have been. This and other similar transactions revived the association of the Regulators, who, incensed and blinded with indignation and ignorance, easily became the dupes of leaders of whom some were madmen and others were knaves. One of those leaders named Few, whose life was afterwards vindictively abridged by the executioner instead of being charitably prolonged in a lunatic asylum, alleged that he was employed by Heaven to deliver the whole world from oppression, and specially enjoined to commence in North Carolina.

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1771.

BOOK XI.
 1771. After various outrages, the Regulators assembling in the present year to the number of two thousand, declared their purpose of abolishing the courts of justice, exterminating all lawyers and public officers, and prostrating the provincial government itself beneath some wild and indeterminate scheme of democracy, which, doubtless, its abettors as little comprehended as they were qualified to accomplish. All the sober and respectable part of the community perceived the necessity of defending themselves against the folly and fury of the insurgents, whom Tryon was soon enabled to oppose with eleven hundred of the provincial militia. In a battle at Almansee, the Regulators were completely defeated with the loss of three hundred of their number who were found dead on the field. Seventy of the militia were killed or wounded. Twelve of the defeated insurgents were afterwards tried and condemned to die for high treason; six of these were executed: the rest of the fugitives, except some of their leaders who escaped from the province, submitted to the government and took the oath of allegiance. Tryon, though he had dissolved an assembly for imitating the Virginian resolutions in 1769, was yet in the main a popular governor with all the most substantial and respectable inhabitants of North Carolina. This advantage he owed to the diligence with which he avoided to provoke or aggravate disputes with the assembly, and to the zeal with which he opposed a proposition of Lord Charles Montague the governor of South Carolina for ascertaining a boundary line very unfavourable to the northern province. However, only a short time after he had suppressed the insurrection of the Regulators, Tryon was removed to the government of New York, and succeeded in North Carolina by Josiah Martin, a vain, weak, and insolent man, who endeavoured to lower the character of his predecessor by defending and countenancing all who were supposed to have aided or befriended the Regulators; and to recommend himself to the British ministry by seizing every opportunity of quarrelling with and complaining of the provincial assembly.¹ This was an appointment most unpropitious to the credit and authority of the British government with all the inhabitants of the pro-

¹ Williamson. Holmes. Ann. Reg. for 1771.

vince, except those unfortunate persons whose ignorance, C H A P.
 deluded by the caresses of Martin, induced them to transfer III.
 their resentment from the parent state to the provincial in-
 stitutions: and when we consider that in the same year, 1771.
 Hutchinson, one of the most unpopular characters in America,
 was appointed to succeed his former principal Bernard as
 governor of Massachusetts; and that his two brothers-in-law
 Andrew and Peter Oliver, unpopular both by their public
 conduct and their connexion with him, were appointed, the
 first, lieutenant-governor, and the second, chief justice of this
 province, it must be acknowledged that the perplexity and
 hesitation latterly betrayed by the cabinet of the parent state,
 issued in counsels that were far from disclosing the influence
 of deliberate wisdom or the discernment of sound policy.

An act of violence committed by the colonists Rhode- 1772.
 Island, though less memorable in respect of its intrinsic im- Resistance
 portance than the insurrection of the Regulators in North in Rhode
 Carolina, excited more general attention from its significance Island.
 as an indication of the height to which the general current of
 American sentiment was rising. The commander of the Gas-
 pee, an armed British schooner stationed at Providence, had
 been very assiduous in supporting the trade laws, and excited
 additional resentment by firing at the Providence packets in
 order to compel them to salute his flag by lowering theirs as
 they passed his vessel, and by chasing them even into the
 docks in case of refusal. The master of a packet conveying June 9.
 passengers to Providence, which was fired at and chased by
 the Gaspee for neglecting to pay the requisite tribute of
 respect, took advantage of the state of the tide (it being almost
 high water) to stand in so closely to the shore that the
 Gaspee in the pursuit might be exposed to run a-ground.
 The artifice succeeded; the Gaspee presently stuck fast, and
 the packet proceeded in triumph to Providence, where a strong
 sensation was excited by the tidings of the occurrence, and a
 project was hastily formed to improve the blow and destroy
 the obnoxious vessel. Brown a considerable merchant of
 Providence, and Whipple a ship-master, took the lead in this
 bold adventure, and easily collected a strong body of armed
 and resolute men with whom they embarked in whale boats
 to attack the British ship of war. At two o'clock the next June 10.

BOOK morning, they boarded the Gaspee so suddenly, and in such
 XL. numbers, that her crew were instantly overpowered without
 1772. hurt to any one except her commanding officer who was wounded. The captors having despatched a part of their number to convey him, together with his private effects and his crew ashore, set fire to the Gaspee and destroyed her with all her stores. The issue of this daring act of war against the forces of the king was as remarkable as the enterprise itself. The British government offered a reward of five hundred pounds, together with a pardon if claimed by an accomplice, for the discovery and apprehension of any person concerned in the traitorous attack upon the Gaspee; and a commission under the great seal of England appointed Wanton the governor of Rhode Island, Peter Oliver the new chief justice of Massachusetts, Auchmuty the judge admiral of America, and certain other persons to preside upon the trial of the offenders; but no trial took place. Nobody came forward to claim the proffered reward: some persons who were apprehended in the hope that they might be induced by threats and terror to become witnesses, were enabled by popular assistance to escape before any information could be extracted from them; and in the commencement of the following year, the commissioners reported to the British ministry their inability to procure evidence or information against a single individual.¹

Governor
 Hutchinson.
 son.

Meanwhile, the flame of discontent was fanned in Massachusetts by the personal animosity that daily increased between Hutchinson and the majority of the provincial assembly. Hutchinson, whom we have had frequent occasion to notice, was a man endowed with much address, agreeable manners, and considerable talents, of which the efficacy was promoted by indefatigable industry; but vain, ambitious, and credulous; profoundly versed in the knowledge of the laws, history, and politics of New England, yet never acquainted with the true character and genius of the people. In former years he had been a popular citizen; and was reckoned, not indeed a zealous, but a prudent patriot, and a dexterous politician. His popularity, redeemed from a partial eclipse by the uprightness,

¹ Gordon. Holmes.

diligence and ability with which he discharged the functions of chief justice, had been irretrievably ruined by circumstances which we have already recounted. He still retained a number of friends by whom, among other topics of praise, his birth in New England and the politeness of his manners were favourably contrasted with the British extraction and the insolence of Bernard. But these circumstances eventually rendered him only more deeply and generally detested, when it was discovered that he, a native of America, and a person of so much seeming moderation that no violent counsels had been expected from him, was at this period carrying on a secret correspondence with the British ministry, whom he urgently advised to undertake the most important innovations on the provincial institutions, in order to extend royal prerogative and abridge popular liberty. Then indeed, almost all his countrymen forsook him; and he became more odious than it was possible for Bernard or any other native of England to have rendered himself in America. During the whole scene of the controversy with Britain, and of the revolution which ensued from it, the moderation which the Americans displayed towards the natives of Britain, was strikingly contrasted with the implacable rage, impatience, and hatred which they indulged against American royalists;¹ and a curious saying became current in America "that although we are commanded to forgive our enemies, we are nowhere enjoined to pardon our friends." Hutchinson was already to his countrymen an object of violent and general dislike; and it was highly impolitic of the British ministers to embarrass the execution of their measures with the adventitious weight of his peculiar unpopularity. Professing an earnest desire to

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¹ Americans whose predilection for the royal cause was only suspected, or had vented itself merely in ambiguous language or conduct, were frequently *tared and feathered* by their countrymen — i. e. their naked bodies were first smeared with tar, and then rolled in a heap of feathers. The burlesque and even jocular cast of this operation, blinded the eyes of the populace to its cruelty. Laughter stifled compassion; and ferocity was disguised and promoted by blending vengeance with sport. In the French Revolution the number of real or supposed aristocrats who, with mingled jest and cruelty, were hanged by the populace on the lamp-posts of Paris, illustrated still more forcibly the danger of connecting ludicrous ideas with penal inflictions.

The American Royalists subsequently exacted a bloody and disproportioned revenge of the insults which they had provoked from their countrymen. When they took arms in behalf of Britain, they surpassed even the Indians in the rapine, perfidy, and ferocious cruelty which characterised their warfare.

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obtain accurate reports of the state of public feeling and opinion in America, they would have pursued this end more wisely by sending out a new governor from England to Massachusetts, than by conferring this office on a man whose representations had already proved fallacious, and who had taken such an active part in the late political struggles that his views were necessarily warped by his passions. As firmly as Cardinal Wolsey did, and probably with as much self-deceit, Hutchinson believed that his political conduct was entirely disinterested; and ascribed all his exertions to abet royal prerogative to a genuine and simple zeal for the due dignity of the crown and the general welfare and honour of the empire. He resembled not a little his official predecessor governor Dudley. Both were sincerely attached to their country; but both, dazzled by ambition, enamoured of aristocracy, and bent on pre-eminence, were led by mixed motives of political principle and personal convenience, to prefer a splendid wealthy magistracy invested with a vigorous control over the citizens, to a system of government more humble in its pretensions and more dependent on the power and pleasure of a free people.

Proceed-
ings in
Massachu-
setts —

Hutchinson had enjoyed his commission as governor but a very short time, when he acquainted the provincial assembly that he no longer required a salary from them, as the king had made provision for his support. By this measure the British court expected gradually to introduce into practical operation, the principle for which it had already contended, of rendering the emoluments as well as the communication and endurance of executive functions in America, wholly dependent on the pleasure of the crown; and doubtless, it was supposed that the Americans would give little heed to the principle of an innovation of which the first practical effect was to relieve themselves from a considerable burden. But the Americans valued liberty more than money, and justly accounted it the political basis on which reposed the stability of every temporal advantage. Hutchinson's communication was maturely considered; and about a month afterwards, the assembly by a message declared to him that the royal provision for his support and his own acceptance of it, was an infringement of the rights of the inhabitants recognised by the pro-

July 10.

vincial charter, an insult to the assembly, and an invasion of the important trust which from the foundation of their commonwealth they had ever continued to exercise. Hutchinson, who, like many scholars, entertained sentiments rather kindly than respectful of the mass of mankind, and never justly appreciated the fortitude, resolution, and foresight of his countrymen, appears to have been struck with surprise at their conduct on this occasion. This, at least, is the most intelligible explanation of his behaviour, when, some time after, they desired his assent to the usual provision they had made for the salaries of the judges. Instead of frankly granting or withholding his sanction, he continued to hesitate and temporize, until a remonstrance from the assembly elicited from him the avowal, for which they were quite prepared, that he could no longer authorize a provincial provision for the judges, as the king had undertaken to provide for *their* remuneration also. The assembly instantly passed a resolution declaring that this measure tended to the subversion of justice and equity; and that while the tenure of judicial office continued to depend on the pleasure of the king, "any of the judges who shall accept of and depend upon the pleasure of the crown for his support, independent of the grants of the assembly, will discover that he is an enemy to the constitution, and has it in his heart to promote the establishment of arbitrary power in the province." We shall here so far overstep the march of time and order of events, as to notice the issue of this particular dispute, which did not occur till the commencement of the year 1774, when four of the judges acquainted the assembly that they had received the salary voted to them by the representatives of the people, and had refused to accept emolument from any other quarter; but Oliver the chief justice announced that he had received the king's salary, and without his majesty's permission could not accept any other allowance. The assembly thereupon voted an impeachment against Oliver before the governor and council; and as Hutchinson refused to receive it, they voted that his refusal was occasioned by his own dependence on the crown. They had never indeed any hope that it would be received; and were prompted to these measures by the desire of rendering Hutchinson and Oliver additionally unpopular.

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1772.

Nov. 22.

1773.

March.

and in
Virginia.

In the close of the present year, Samuel Adams suggested to his countrymen, the expediency of a measure fitted to counteract the representations of Hutchinson and his adherents, that the popular opposition was more formidable in appearance than in reality and was at bottom merely an intrigue of a few factious men: and in conformity with his suggestion, the inhabitants of Boston elected twenty-one of their fellow-citizens as a committee empowered to correspond with the rest of the inhabitants of the province, to consider and state their grievances, and publish to the world an account of their proceedings. The committee thus elected prepared and dispersed throughout the province a report of all the encroachments that had been attempted or committed upon American liberty, together with a circular letter which concluded in these terms—"Let us consider, brethren, that we are struggling for our best birth-right and inheritance, of which the infringement renders all our blessings precarious in their enjoyment, and consequently trifling in their value. *We are not afraid of poverty: but we disdain slavery.* Let us disappoint the men who are raising themselves on the ruin of this country. Let us convince every invader of our freedom that we will be as free as the constitution which our fathers recognised will justify." The powerful influence of this measure was not confined to the province of Massachusetts, nor even to the states of New England. A few months after, the assembly of Virginia declared their resolution of maintaining an uninterrupted intercourse with the sister colonies, and for this purpose appointed a committee of eleven persons who were instructed to use their utmost endeavours to procure authentic intelligence of all the transactions of the British parliament or ministry relative to America, and to maintain a correspondence on this subject with the other provincial communities. This measure, which produced an important effect in animating the resolution and harmonizing the proceedings of the Americans, proved so grateful in particular to the citizens of Boston, that in a letter of instructions which they addressed shortly after to their representatives in the assembly, they desired them seriously to consider if the salvation of American liberty and the restoration of friendship between America and Britain did not demand an immediate concur-

rence with *the wise and salutary proposal of our noble patriotic sister colony of Virginia*. The recommendation of the citizens of Boston was favourably received by the assembly of Massachusetts, which instantly appointed a committee of correspondence with the other colonies. In a circular letter, shortly after published by this committee, the prospect of a quarrel between England and Spain, was remarked in these terms:—"Should a war take place, which by many is thought to be probable, America will be viewed by the administration as important to Great Britain. Her aid will be deemed necessary; her friendship will be courted. Would it not then be wise in the several American governments to withhold all kind of aid in a general war, till their rights and liberties are permanently restored and secured?" "With regard to the *extent of rights*," they added, "which the colonies *ought to insist upon*, it is a subject which requires the greatest attention and deliberation. This is a strong reason why it should claim the earliest consideration of every committee; that we may be prepared, when *time and circumstances* shall give to our claim the surest prospect of success. And when we consider how one great event has hurried on after another, *such a time may come sooner than we suppose*." Hutchinson, about this time, with a rash confidence in his own talents and an eager hope of recommending himself to the British court, undertook in his speeches to the assembly of Massachusetts, to maintain by argument the legislative supremacy of parliament—a doctrine which we have seen that his own original opinions outstripped those of his countrymen in opposing. His conduct in this instance was generally disapproved, even in England, where it was remarked with displeasure that principles solemnly established by the crown and parliament, were at once unhinged and degraded by the presumptuous argumentative patronage of a provincial governor. The assembly, though with some reluctance, accepted his challenge to argue the point: and the general impression in America pronounced them victors in the discussion.¹

Among other subjects of dispute with the British government and its officers, was one more creditable to Massachusetts

¹ Eliot, art. Hutchinson. Franklin's Private Correspondence. Hutchinson. Gordon. Bradford. Holmes. Pitkin.

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1773.

Attempt of
Massachu-
setts to
abolish the
Slave
Trade—

resisted by
the British
govern-
ment.

than even her magnanimous concern for the liberty of her citizens and their fellow colonists. Negro slavery still subsisted in every one of the American provinces; and the unhappy victims of this yoke were rapidly multiplied by the progressive extension of the slave-trade.¹ Georgia the youngest of all the states, contained already fourteen thousand negroes; and in the course of the present year alone, more than six thousand were imported into South Carolina. In New England the number of slaves was very insignificant; and their treatment so mild and humane as in some measure to veil from the public eye the iniquity of their bondage. But the recent discussions with regard to liberty and the rights of human nature were calculated to awaken in generous minds a juster impression of negro slavery: and during the latter part of Governor Bernard's administration, a bill prohibitory of all traffic in negroes was passed by the Massachusetts assembly. Bernard however, in conformity with his instructions from the crown, refused to affirm this law; and thus opposed himself to the virtue as well as to the liberty of the people whom he governed. On three subsequent occasions laws abolishing the slave-trade were passed by the same assembly during Hutchinson's administration; but all were in like manner negatived by the governor. And yet it was at this very period, when Britain permitted her merchants annually to make slaves of more than fifty thousand men, and refused to permit her colonists to decline a participation in this injustice, that her orators, poets, and statesmen loudly celebrated the generosity of English virtue in suffering no slaves to exist on English ground, and the transcendent equity of her judicial tribunals in liberating one negro² who had

¹ "The number of Negro slaves bartered for in one year (1768) on the coast of Africa from Cape Blanco to Rio Congo, by the different European nations, was as follows: Great Britain 53,100; British Americans, 6,300; France, 23,520; Holland, 11,300; Portugal, 1,700; Denmark, 1,200; in all 104,100, bought by barter for European and Indian manufactures: 15*l.* sterling being the average price given for each Negro." *Ann. Reg.* for 1769.

"It is evident," says the Abbe Raynal, "from the most accurate and undeniable calculations, that there dies every year in America, the seventh part of the blacks that are imported thither from Guinea. Fourteen hundred thousand unhappy beings who are now in the European colonies in the new world, are the unfortunate remains of nine millions of slaves that have been conveyed thither."

² Somersett, the negro, liberated by the English court of King's Bench in 1772—Howell's *State Trials*. Somersett's case is erroneously supposed to have been the first of the kind that occurred in Great Britain. More than ten years before its

been carried there. Though Massachusetts was thus prevented from abolishing the slave-trade, the relative discussions that took place were by no means unproductive of good. A great amelioration became visible in the condition of all the negroes in the province; and most of the proprietors gave liberty to their slaves.¹ This *just* action,—for such and such only it deserves to be termed,—has obtained hitherto scarcely any notice from mankind: while the subsequent and similar conduct of the quakers in Pennsylvania has been celebrated with warm and general encomium. So capricious is the distribution of fame: and so much advantage does the reputation of virtue derive from alliance with sectarian spirit and interest.

The British government, meanwhile, having rashly determined to enforce the Tea-duty,—of which the most considerable effect hitherto had been vast importations of smuggled tea into America by the French, the Dutch, the Danes, and the Swedes,—attempted to compass by policy what constraint and authority had proved insufficient to accomplish. The measures of the Americans had already occasioned such diminution of exports from Britain, that the warehouses of the English East India Company contained above seventeen millions of pounds of tea, for which it was difficult to procure a market. The unwillingness of the Company to lose their commercial profits, and of the ministry to forego the expected revenue from the sale of tea in America, induced a compromise for their mutual advantage. A high duty had been imposed hitherto on the exportation of tea from England: but the East India Company were now authorized by act of parliament to export their tea free of duty to all places whatever. By this regulation it was expected that tea, though loaded

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British attempt to exact the Tea-duty—

May.

occurrence, a negro slave imported into Scotland was liberated by the sentence of the Admiralty Court of Glasgow, in which Thomas Grahame the grandfather of the author of this History then held the office of judge.

¹ Bradford. Holmes. Franklin's Private Correspondence. "The great revolution which has taken place in the western world, may probably conduce (and who knows but that it was designed?) to accelerate the fall of this abominable tyranny [the institution of negro slavery]; and now that this contest, and its attendant passions are no more, there may succeed perhaps a season for reflecting, whether a legislature which had so long lent its assistance to the support of an institution replete with human misery, was fit to be trusted with an empire the most extensive that ever obtained in any age or quarter of the world." Paley's Moral and Political Philosophy.

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with an exceptionable duty on its importation into America, would yet readily obtain purchasers among the Americans; as the vendors, relieved of the British export duty, could afford to sell it to them even cheaper than before it had been made a source of American revenue. The crisis now drew near when the Americans were to decide whether they would submit to be taxed by the British parliament, or practically support their own principles, and brave the most perilous consequences of their inflexibility. One common sentiment seemed to be awakened throughout the whole continent by the tidings of the ministerial plan, which was universally reprobated as an attempt at once injurious and insulting, to bribe the Americans to surrender their rights and bend their own necks to the yoke of arbitrary power. A violent ferment was every where excited: the corresponding committees and political clubs exerted their utmost activity to rouse and unite the people; and it was generally declared that as every citizen owed to his country the duty at least of refraining from being accessory to her subjugation, every man who should countenance the present dangerous measure of the British government should be deemed an enemy of America. Some of the popular leaders expressed doubts of the prudence of actual resistance to a measure of so little intrinsic importance; and preferably urged that the people should be restrained from violence till the occurrence of an opportunity of rousing and directing their force against some invasion of American liberty more momentous and alarming. But to this suggestion it was reasonably and successfully replied, that such an opportunity might never occur again; that Britain, warned by the past, would avoid sudden and startling innovations; that her policy would be,—by multiplying posts and offices, and either bestowing them on her partizans, or employing them to corrupt her antagonists,—to increase her force proportionally faster than the force of the patriotic party would increase by the growth of the American population; that she had latterly sent out as her functionaries a number of young men who, marrying into provincial families of influence and consideration, had weakened the force of American opposition; and that *now* was the time to profit by the general irritation of the people and the blunders which Britain had committed, in

order to precipitate a collision which sooner or later was inevitable, and to prevent a seeming accommodation of the quarrel which would only expose the interests of America to additional disadvantage. The East India Company, confident of finding a market for their tea, reduced as it now was in price, freighted several ships to America with this commodity, and appointed consignees to receive and dispose of it. Some cargoes were sent to New York; some to Philadelphia; some to Charlestown the metropolis of South Carolina; and some to Boston. The inhabitants of New York and Philadelphia prevailed with the consignees to disclaim their functions, and forced the ships to return with their cargoes to London. The inhabitants of Charlestown unladed the tea, and deposited it in public cellars where it was guarded from use and finally perished. At Boston the consignees who were the near kinsmen of Governor Hutchinson, at first refused to resign their appointments; and the vessels containing the tea lay long in the harbour watched by a strong guard of the citizens who, from a numerous town-meeting despatched the most peremptory commands to the ship-masters not to land their obnoxious cargoes. After much delay, the consignees, alarmed by the increasing violence of the people, solicited leave from the governor to resign, but were encouraged by him to persist. They proposed then to the people that the tea should be landed, and preserved in some public store or magazine; but this compromise was indignantly rejected. At length the popular rage could be contained no longer. From the symptoms of its dangerous fervour, the consignees fled in dismay to the castle; while an assemblage of men dressed and painted like Mohawk Indians, boarded the vessels and threw the tea into the ocean.¹ The conduct of the East India Company in assisting the policy of the British government, strongly excited the displeasure of the Americans. This sentiment was manifested in a singular manner in Rhode Island, where a confederacy of respectable women united in resolutions to abstain from and discourage the use of tea procured from the East India Company. Learning that an inhabitant of the province had imported some of the obnoxious commodity, they re-

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Success-
fully re-
sisted in
America—

Nov. 5.

Dec. 16.

tumultu-
ously de-
feated at
Boston.

¹ See Note XV. at the end of the volume.

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1773. requested him to return it; and he instantly complied.¹ Thus again was another notable scheme of the British government rendered completely abortive.

Disclosure
of Hutch-
inson's
letters.

The people of Massachusetts had been the more easily excited to the violence which we have remarked, by the discovery which took place in the summer of the present year of the secret correspondence formerly adverted to, which Hutchinson and some other kindred politicians had been carrying on with the British ministry. According to the defensive statement published by Franklin of his own share in this transaction, a person of character and distinction in England, whom he refused to name (perhaps the ex-governor Pownall), having repeatedly assured him that all the measures of the British government which were the most offensive to America had originated from, and indeed greatly fallen short of the suggestions and solicitations addressed by native Americans to the British ministry, at length verified this statement by exhibiting a series of letters (how procured by himself was never explained) to persons holding official situations in England, from Hutchinson, Oliver, and other individuals, representing all the popular transactions in America under the most irritating colours, and warmly pressing an alteration of the provincial constitutions, and the support of British prerogative by military power. Franklin, struck with surprise (so he said) at this discovery, and indulging all the latitude of political passion, — (the same latitude which Themistocles indulged in that celebrated project which the virtue of Aristides condemned, and Athenian wisdom rejected), — obtained leave to send the letters themselves to Massachusetts, on condition that they should be communicated only to a few of the leading politicians of this province, and neither printed, published, copied, nor generally circulated. He declared that he considered a disclosure of the contents of these letters a debt which he owed to his constituents; and the production of the original documents essential to the verification of his statement of their contents. How the letters reached, and whether by fair and honourable means (which is hardly possible), the hands of the individual from whom he received them, is left a matter of conjecture and uncertainty by the obscurity which still prevents that individual from

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1773 and for 1774. Gordon. Franklin's Private Correspondence.

being distinctly or satisfactorily recognised. Various persons were exposed to the suspicion of having purloined the letters; and a duel originating in a dispute on this subject, having taken place between the secretary of the treasury and another gentleman, Franklin, in order to prevent farther bloodshed, volunteered the avowal of his share in the transaction. His profession of having been actuated by a sense of duty to his countrymen in Massachusetts, was sarcastically disputed by antagonists, who maintained, more plausibly than reasonably, that this sentiment was inconsistent with the condition by which he restricted or rather attempted to restrict, the communication of the letters to a few individual heads, and to withhold this important disclosure from the main body of his constituents. But the condition attached to the communication of the papers was prescribed to Franklin, and perhaps originated from an apprehension of provoking the populace of Boston to some act of violence against the person of Hutchinson, if the matter were suddenly blazed abroad. Franklin was farther reproached by his antagonists with treachery, in prying into and disclosing the *private letters* (for they were not official despatches) of individuals without their permission, and for the purpose of stimulating the resentment of the colonists against the British government, in whose service he himself at the time held an office of trust. In answer to this charge, he insisted that the correspondence of public officers relative to public affairs, and containing statements which formed the source of great public measures, was not a private, though it might be, as in the present case it had been, a secret transaction; that its secrecy was highly injurious both to Britain and America, inasmuch as the parent state was deceived by calumnious representations; and the colonists, unacquainted with these calumnies, were unable to vindicate themselves,—and ignorant of the real source of the harsh measures recently employed against them, cherished a resentment against Britain which was more justly merited by a few individuals in America; and that he hoped by disclosing the letters to the popular leaders to induce them to employ their influence to moderate the resentment of the people against the parent state. But in reality the policy of the British government was more the cause than the effect of the communications it received from its provincial functionaries: the

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 1773. popular leaders in Massachusetts were already quite aware of the general tenor of Hutchinson's correspondence with the British court; and Franklin's argument, if it were as sound as it is plausible, would sanction that specious but pernicious axiom of casuistical morality, that upright intentions may justify dishonest actions, and the generosity of the proposed object extend the protection of its own glory to the character, however ambiguous, of the means pursued. Yet that he really cherished the view which he professed, subtle and chimerical as it appears, is rendered probable by the fact that for two years more he continued to hope and endeavoured to promote a reconciliation between Britain and America; and that during this period he repeatedly expressed not merely indulgence but approbation of the conduct of his son, the royal governor of New Jersey, who was a staunch supporter of British prerogative,—a sentiment which he could not reasonably have entertained if he had expected that the controversy between British prerogative and American liberty would terminate in a civil war.¹ It was farther defensively urged by Franklin, that copies of many letters which were intended to be secret written both by himself and other friends of the Americans in England, were procured and conveyed to Britain by the partizans of British prerogative in America; and however unsatisfactory to the pure, elevated, and inflexible requisitions of theoretical morality, this consideration will be allowed by all practical politicians, not indeed completely to exonerate Franklin from blame, but to suggest a forcible apology for his conduct. For it is, and I hope always will be, accounted a proposition repugnant to human sense and honour, that any individual, however situated, can laudably or even blamelessly peruse and communicate the contents of letters which have passed between other living men, and have reached his own hands by a channel which he cannot or will not explain. Nothing but the blind rage or blinding casuistry of political passion could colour even for a moment so extravagant a proposition. The controversy to which this affair gave rise was unnecessarily complicated by the question of whether the letters deserved to be regarded as private or official communi-

¹ See Note XVI. at the end of the volume.

cations,—a point, comparatively speaking, of very little importance. The honour of the means by which they were procured, and the wisdom and honour of the ends to which they were employed, are the only questions deserving of regard.

Shortly after the letters had been received in Boston, some expressions unguardedly or artfully dropped by one or two of the persons to whom they had been imparted, caused a rumour to arise of matters deeply interesting to the public weal which it was in the power of certain individuals to disclose. The real truth was distorted by mystery and alarm; the public mind became exceedingly agitated: and at length the assembly interposing, demanded a disclosure of the letters, which were accordingly delivered up to them by the custodiers.¹ Possessed now of the testimony of Hutchinson's perfidy (for such was the light in which they viewed his conduct), they desired him to inform them if he acknowledged the authorship of the letters which purported to be his. He requested that they might be sent to him for examination: but the assembly declined to comply with his request, and deputed a committee of their own body to exhibit the letters to him; and to this deputation he acknowledged that he had written them. The assembly thereupon caused the letters to be made public, and having passed resolutions² strongly condemning the conduct of Hutchinson and Oliver, transmitted a petition to the king complaining of these individuals for calumniating his subjects to his ministers, and praying him to remove them from their official situations in the province. This petition was presented by Franklin as the provincial agent; and the cause was appointed to be tried before the privy council. Franklin assured the ministers that they had now an opportunity of re-establishing harmony between Britain and America, by a gracious reception of the complaints of the colonists, and sacrificing to their indignation the insidious counsellors by whom the international quarrel had been fomented: and from the language of the Earl of Dartmouth

¹ Some of the expressions in the letters were peculiarly irritating. Hutchinson, in particular, expressed the most arrogant contempt for the popular leaders, and declared that the people in general, when not deluded by false alarms, equally despised them. Oliver, in suggesting a particular measure to the ministry, observed of it, that "By such a step, *the game will be up with my countrymen.*"

² June 15.

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who had succeeded to the office of Lord Hillsborough, he was led for a while to hope that this conciliatory experiment would be attempted. But Franklin had now become the object of suspicion and dislike to the prevailing party in the British cabinet, who highly resented his sarcastic strictures in the newspapers upon their colonial policy, and were informed by their partizans in America that his letters to the popular leaders were replete with the most malicious and treasonable counsels. Besides, the line of conduct which he recommended to the ministry on the present occasion, was such as honour and shame alike forbade them to embrace. It was impossible that they should consent to punish two of their partizans for communications which they themselves had encouraged them to make, and had sanctioned by the corresponding measures they had adopted. In truth, Hutchinson and Oliver had rather flattered than fomented the imperious disposition of the British cabinet. After some delay, the petition of the

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Jan. 29.

Massachusetts assembly was discussed before the privy council: when Wedderburne the Solicitor-General (afterwards Lord Loughborough) attending as the counsel for Hutchinson, discharged a torrent of insulting sarcasm and outrageous invective and ribaldry¹ against the character and conduct of Franklin, whose venerable appearance and illustrious reputation could neither check the flow of the pleader's witty malice, nor deter the lords of the council from testifying by laughter and applause the entertainment which this unworthy and indecent exhibition afforded them. A more decorous and temperate harangue would have proved far more injurious to the cause and character of Franklin. But as usual, intemperate attack produced indiscriminate vindication. The discussion terminated by a judgment of the privy council acquitting Hutchinson and Oliver from blame, and rejecting the petition of Massachusetts. On the following day, Franklin was dismissed by the British government from the office of postmaster-general of America. These proceedings, and especially the elaborate malignity of insult which had been heaped

Dismissal
of Frank-
lin from
the British
service.

¹ "This wily American," said Wedderburne, "has forfeited all the respect of societies and men. Into what companies will he hereafter go with an unembarrassed face, or the honest intrepidity of virtue? Men will watch him with a jealous eye, and hide their papers from him. He will henceforth esteem it a libel to be called a *man of letters*—*homo trium literarum*."

upon a man whom they so highly admired and respected, sank deeply into the minds of the Americans.¹

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But the triumph of Hutchinson was short. He had now become so generally hateful to his countrymen, that it was impossible for the British government with the slightest regard to the interest of its own service, to retain him any longer as the representative of the king in Massachusetts. The strong measures besides, which the government was provoked to embrace by the intelligence of the destruction of the East India Company's tea at Boston, demanded that a more vigorous and less odious hand should be employed in their execution. Hutchinson was accordingly commanded soon after to repair to England, professedly to give information to the ministers with regard to the state of the colonies. Along with Tryon, who was afterwards recalled from New York, and General Carleton the governor of Canada, he was desired by the cabinet to declare his opinion whether the Americans, in the last extremity, would venture to resist the arms of Britain. Hutchinson confidently predicted that they would either not fight at all, or at most offer no farther opposition than what a few troops would easily quell. Carleton protested that America might certainly be conquered; but that a considerable army would be necessary for this purpose; and that for himself, he would not venture to march against New York or Boston with a smaller force than ten thousand men. Tryon declared that Britain would require large armies and long efforts to bring America to her feet; that her power was equal to any thing; but that *all* that power must be exerted in order to *put the monster in chains*. The representations of Hutchinson were the most congenial to the sentiments and the temper of the British government: and, unfortunately for England, they were corroborated by the kindred folly and ignorance of many British statesmen and officers. "The Americans are a degenerate race of Europeans—they have nothing of the soldier in them," was the customary language of men who were

¹ Franklin's Memoirs. Ann. Reg. for 1774. Gordon. About a year after the insulting treatment of Franklin in England, Don Gabriel, one of the princes of the royal family of Spain sent him a present of a version of Sallust which he had produced. Franklin, in acknowledging this mark of respect, took occasion to inform the prince that there was rising in America a powerful state whose interest, he judged, would dictate a close and friendly connection with Spain. Franklin's Private Correspondence.

BOOK XI.
1774. Taunting language in England.

destined by their own defeats to illustrate the valour which they depreciated, and who learned too late to consider the Americans as a regenerated race of Europeans, in whom the energy of freemen more than supplied the mechanical expertness of severely instructed slaves. General Clarke, with an impudence equalled only by the absurdity of his language, declared in a company of learned men at London, and in the hearing of Dr. Franklin, that with a thousand British grenadiers, he would undertake to march from one end of America to the other, and disgracefully mutilate all the male inhabitants, partly by force and partly by a little persuasion. Another general officer asserted, in the House of Commons, that "*The Yankies* (a foolish nickname which now began to be applied to the Americans) *never felt bold.*" The speeches of other military officers in parliament, and of the prime minister, Lord North, conveyed ideas equally calculated to delude their countrymen and to inflame by contumely all the rage and courage which injustice and injury had already kindled in the Americans. The extraordinary and injudicious delay and hesitation which contributed to defeat the subsequent military operations of Britain in America, have been ascribed to these representations, and to the conviction they promoted, that only a distinct and certain view of their own danger was requisite to induce the Americans to abandon every pretension that could possibly induce a conflict with the force of Britain. The British government, and the nation in general, were now fully animated with that insolence of pride which precedes and produces destruction: and the evil genius of England seemed to rise and reign in almost every breast.¹ While the delusion lasted, Hutchinson was caressed by the court, and rendered so giddy by vain expectation, that in letters to America he announced his approaching elevation to a British peerage. A short time, however, sufficed to open the eyes of the ministry and the nation, so far at least as to render the folly and mis-

¹ Even the administrators of British authority were constrained to acknowledge this long before the termination of the contest. In 1778, Lord Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone were appointed Commissioners of the British Crown for the pacification of revolted America. To this end, they (vainly) offered larger concessions than America prior to her revolt had ever demanded: and Johnstone in a letter to his friend Laurens, the president of the American Congress, urged him not to "*follow the example of Britain in the hour of her insolence.*" Ann. Reg. for 1778.

chief of his counsels glaringly apparent. He was permitted thenceforward to hide his disgrace and the misery that preyed on his closing life in a retirement near London, undisturbed by ambitious hope, and uncheered by a single ray of court favour. He lived to see Britain involved in disgrace and disaster, and America irretrievably alienated from her, and ravaged with fire and sword, by the conduct and policy which he had abetted: and died before the conclusion of the struggle, oppressed with a load of mortification, and heart-broken by the deaths of children whom he tenderly loved.¹

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Some attempts were made, about this period, to encourage the production of silk, and to promote the cultivation of the grape and the manufacture of wine in the southern states of America. In the year 1772, a considerable quantity of fine silk was exported from Purrysburg, in South Carolina, to England: and in the same year, St. Pierre, a Frenchman settled in that province, obtained from the Society established at London for encouragement of the arts, a gold medal for wine which was the produce of his plantation, and from the board of trade a recommendation to the patronage of the lords of the treasury for his successful culture of silk and vines.²

In the year 1773, William Bartram, son of the great American botanist, who has already engaged our notice,³ undertook, at the request of Dr. Fothergill a distinguished quaker physician in London, an exploratory tour in Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; directed chiefly, but not exclusively, to the improvement of botanical science. He afterwards published the particulars of his travels and observations, in a very interesting work.⁴ It describes accurately and eloquently the scenery and natural productions of the regions visited by the author, and relates his personal adventures with much simplicity and elegance. It is copiously interspersed with fine and ardent expressions of devotional sentiment, derived from what is

¹ Eliot. Franklin's Private Correspondence. Dwight. The only dignity which Hutchinson obtained in England was conferred by the University of Oxford, which on the 4th of July, 1776 (the very day of the declaration of American Independence) bestowed upon him and upon Oliver, the title of Master of Arts. Ann. Reg. for 1776. They were certainly masters of what Franklin called "the art of reducing a great empire to a small one."

² Ann. Reg. for 1772.

³ Book X. chap. ii. *ante*.

⁴ Travels, &c. by William Bartram.

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1774. called natural (not revealed) religion, and of benevolent regard and even tender concern for the happiness of all living creatures. It contains, however, some passages in which lascivious actions and wanton thoughts are recorded with serene satisfaction or uncompunctious indifference. And yet the author professes to have been (like his father) a quaker.

The Shakers.

In the course of the present year, there was extended to America the ramification of a singular religious sect, engendered by a coalition between some French fanatics who called themselves prophets, and a part of the quaker community of England. The separate association thus ensuing, took the name of *The Shakers*; because they conceived themselves the depositaries of truths fitted by their grandeur and awful importance to shake the human soul. A woman named Anne Lee, who had been recognised as the spiritual mother of the society in England, and immured for some time as a lunatic in an English madhouse, escaping from her confinement, set sail with some associates this year for America. The deliverance of the vessel in which she sailed from the violence of a storm, was ascribed by her followers to the exertion of her miraculous power: and when she died, some years after, she was declared by the American shakers to have been "taken up out of the sight of the true believers." Of this society, which rapidly and extensively diffused its influence and multiplied its votaries, the principles seem to have been borrowed by derivation or exaggeration from the peculiar tenets of the quakers and the methodists. One of the most respectable of their distinctive tenets was, that a dirty, slovenly, careless, or indolent person, could not possibly be a true christian. Hence, a regulation arose, that every member, male and female of the society, must be invariably neat and clean, and continually employed in some description of moderate labour.¹

A new college was founded in the present year, in Virginia. This institution, though supported by several eminent scholars and philosophers, never attained a flourishing state, and chiefly claims our notice from the significant name it assumed of *Hampden Sidney College*.²

¹ Dwight's Travels.

² Miller's Retrospect.

During the whole period of her controversy with Britain, America was deriving a continual increase of strength from domestic growth,¹ and from the flow of European emigration. Her territories presented varieties of human condition, and diversified attractions adapted to almost every imaginable peculiarity of human taste,—from scenes of peace and repose, to circumstances of romantic adventure and interesting danger,—from the rudeness and solitude of the forest, to the refinements of cultivated life, and the busy hum of men in flourishing, populous, and improved communities,—from the lawless liberty of the back settlements, to the dominion of the most severely moral legislation that ever prevailed among mankind. No complete memorial has been transmitted of the particulars of the emigrations that took place from Europe to America at this period; but (from the few illustrative facts that are actually preserved) they appear to have been amazingly copious. Within the first fortnight of August, 1773, there arrived at Philadelphia three thousand five hundred emigrants from Ireland: and from the same document which has recorded this circumstance, it appears that vessels were arriving every month, freighted with emigrants from Holland, Germany, and especially from Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland. About seven hundred Irish settlers repaired to the Carolinas in the autumn of 1773: and in the course of the same season, no fewer than ten vessels sailed from Britain with Scottish Highlanders emigrating to the American states. As most of the emigrants, and particularly those from Ireland and Scotland, were persons discontented with their condition or treatment in Europe,² their accession to the colonial population, it might reasonably be supposed, had no tendency to diminish or counteract the hostile sentiments towards Britain which were daily gathering force in America. And yet these persons, especially the Scotch,

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European
emigra-
tions to
America.

¹ The population of Connecticut, according to a census published by its provincial assembly, amounted this year to 191,392 white persons and 6464 blacks. Ann. Reg. for 1774—an increase of about 50,000 souls since the year 1763 (Append. III. *ante*) in a province which received but few emigrants, and supplied a considerable emigration to other quarters of America.

² “September 23, 1775. The ship *Jupiter* from Dunstaffnage Bay with two hundred emigrants on board, chiefly from Argyleshire, set sail for North Carolina: the men declaring that the oppressions of their landlords were such as they could no longer submit to.” Ann. Reg. for 1775. Many passages of similar import are found in the British Journals at this epoch.

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were in general extremely averse to an entire and abrupt rejection of British authority. Their patriotic attachments, enhanced as usual by distance, always resisted and sometimes prevailed over their more rational and prudent convictions: and more than once in the final struggle, were the interests of British prerogative espoused and aided by men who had been originally driven by hardship and ill-usage from Britain to America. Among other emigrants doubtless cherishing little reverence for their native country, whom Britain continued to discharge upon her colonies, were numbers of convicted felons who were conveyed in general to the states in which tobacco was cultivated, and worked during the allotted period of their exile with the negro slaves. Of these persons, the most abandoned characters generally found their way back to England; but many contracted improved habits, and remained in America. All respectable Americans regarded as an indignity this practice of the parent state,—of which the last instance seems to have occurred in the course of the present year.¹ In England, many persons were so unjust and unreasonable as to make the practice of their government in this respect a matter of insult and reproach to the Americans.

A convention was held this year in Georgia, by Sir James Wright the governor of the colony, with a numerous deputation of the chiefs of the Creek and Cherokee tribes, who willingly ceded to the British king several millions of acres of valuable land in the most fertile and salubrious part of the country, for the payment of debts which they owed to European merchants who had traded with them. A transaction of a very different character occurred at the same time in Virginia, where a war broke out with the Ohio Indians, in consequence of a series of reciprocal injuries, wherein the European colonists, if not the aggressors, (which, however, there is reason to suppose they were,) at least, merited the reproach of exceeding their savage antagonists in the infliction of summary, indiscriminate, and disproportioned revenge. The Virginian government despatched a strong body of militia, under the command of Colonel Lewis, to oppose the enemy: and after a bloody engagement in the woods, in which the colonial

¹ Holmes. Ann. Reg. for 1772, for 1773, and for 1774. Franklin's Works.

troops repulsed the Indians, but with great difficulty and the loss of several hundred men on their own side, the quarrel was adjusted and peace again restored.¹

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¹ Jefferson. Burk. Holmes. Jefferson's account (by no means creditable to his own countrymen) of the Indian war in Virginia is rendered particularly interesting by the grand and solemn, yet touching and tender harangue which he has preserved of *Logan* an Indian chief, to Lord Dunmore the governor of Virginia. *Logan* seems to have been the original whence Campbell derived the fine conception of *Outalissi*.

CHAPTER IV.

Boston Port-Bill,—and other British measures—Their effects in America.—Proposition of a general Congress.—Suffolk Resolutions.—Meeting of the first American Congress—its proceedings.—Transactions in New England.—Proceedings of the British Ministry and Parliament.—Defensive preparations in America.—Affair of Lexington.—The Americans surprise Ticonderoga and Crown Point.—Battle of Bunker's Hill.—Second American Congress—prepares for war—elects a Commander-in-chief.—George Washington.—Transactions in Virginia.—Progress of Hostilities.—American Invasion of Canada.

BOOK THE dispute between the mother country and her colonies
 XI. had now excited so much interest and attention in Europe,
 1774. and the national spirit and pride of the English people was so much aroused by the apparent defiance of an inferior and dependent state, that even if it had been the wish, it was no longer in the power of the king's ministers to overlook an open contravention of the sovereign authority, or to refrain from vindicating this prerogative with a rigour and energy proportioned to the affront which it had received. In this position of the ministry and temper of the nation, the intelligence which was received of the recent events in America, and especially of the destruction of the tea at Boston, was
 March 7. communicated to both houses of parliament by a message from the king, in which the American colonists were reproached with attempting at once to injure the commerce and subvert the constitution of Great Britain. Although it was manifest from the documents which accompanied the royal message, that the opposition by which the sale of the tea in America had been defeated was common to all the colonies, yet the ministers and a great majority of the parliament, enraged at the peculiar violence that had been displayed at Boston, determined to select this town as the sole or at least the primary object of legislative vengeance. It was reckoned that a partial blow might be dealt to America with much

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1774.

March 14.

Boston
Port-bill—

greater severity than could be prudently exerted in more extensive punishment: and it was, doubtless, expected that the Americans in general, without being provoked by personal suffering, would be struck with terror by the rigour inflicted on a city so long renowned as the bulwark of their liberties. Without even the decent formality of requiring the inhabitants of Boston to exculpate themselves, but definitively assuming their guilt in conformity with the despatches of a governor who was notoriously at enmity with them, the ministers introduced into parliament a bill for suspending the trade and closing the harbour of Boston during the pleasure of the king. They declared that the duration of this severity would depend entirely upon the conduct of the objects of it: for it would doubtless be relaxed as soon as the people of Boston should make compensation for the tea that had been destroyed, and otherwise satisfy the king of their sincere purpose to render due submission to his government. The bill encountered very little opposition in its progress through either house of parliament; only a few members vaguely remarking that America was altogether in a very distempered condition, and that a malady so general and formidable demanded remedial applications not partial and violent, but delicate, temperate, and of diffusive efficacy.¹ Several Americans resident at London presented ineffectual petitions to both houses against the bill. Bollen the agent for the council of Massachusetts tendered a petition desiring to be heard at the bar of the House of Commons in behalf of the council as well as of himself and the other inhabitants of Boston, against a measure so injurious to their native country and its commerce. But the house refused even to permit his petition to be read; assigning a nice and subtle technical objection to the representative functions which he claimed, and which yet had been recently recognised in other parliamentary transactions. This pro-

¹ Shortly after the bill was passed, there appeared in the English newspapers the following epigram:—

“ TO THE MINISTRY.

“ You’ve sent a rod to Massachusset,
Thinking the Americans will buss it;
But much I fear, for Britain’s sake,
That this same rod will prove a snake.”

B O O K XI.
 1774. ceeding gave an air of insolent injustice, and of vindictive precipitation to the policy of the British government, and was heavily censured not only by the partizans of America but by all prudent and impartial men. It was rendered the more irritating to the people of Massachusetts by the recollection that the same governor whose charges they were now precluded from gainsaying, had been indulged in the utmost latitude of defence when *his* conduct was arraigned, and *they* were his accusers.

April.
 and other
 British
 measures.

The Boston port-bill was but the first step in the system of coercive measures which the British ministry had now determined to pursue. It was followed shortly after by an act which introduced the most important alterations into the structure of the provincial government of Massachusetts, and bereaved this people of the most valued and considerable of the privileges which had been assured to them by the charter granted after the revolution of 1688. By this second legislative measure, it was enacted that the provincial council, heretofore elected by the representative assembly, should henceforth be appointed by the crown; that the royal governor should enjoy the power of nominating and removing judges, sheriffs, and all other executive officers whose functions possessed the slightest importance; that jurymen, hitherto elected by the freeholders and citizens of the several towns, should in future be nominated and summoned by the sheriffs; and that no *town-meetings* of the people should be convoked without a permission in writing from the royal governor, and no business or matter be discussed at those meetings beyond the topics specified and approved in the governor's licence. The town-meetings (as they were called) against which the latter provision was directed, were not less valued by the Americans, than dreaded by the British government, which regarded them as the nurseries of treason and rebellion. Their institution was coeval with the first foundation of civilized society in New England, and their endurance had sustained only a short interruption during the reign of James the Second, and the tyrannical administration of his governor Sir Edmund Andros: and while they presented the image, they partly supplied the place of that pure democratical constitution which had been originally planted in Massachusetts, and the modification of

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which by the second provincial charter that followed the British revolution, had always been to a numerous party among the colonists the subject of regretful or indignant remembrance. In losing this privilege, the people of New England beheld themselves stripped of the last remaining vestige of those peculiar advantages which had been gained by the courage and virtue of their forefathers ; and in invading it, the British government palpably assimilated its own policy to that of a reign which had provoked successful revolt, and which was now universally stigmatized as tyrannical.

It was anticipated by the British ministers that tumults and bloodshed might probably ensue on the first attempt to carry the new measures into execution : and not satisfied with the control which by the second statute they had usurped over the administration of justice, they proceeded still farther to insure impunity to their functionaries, by framing a third act of parliament which provided, that if any person were indicted for murder or for any other capital offence committed in aiding the magistracy of Massachusetts, it should be competent to the governor of this province to remit the accused party for trial either to another colony or to Great Britain. It was in vain that Edmund Burke, Colonel Barré,¹ and other liberal politicians (who had also ineffectually opposed the second statute) raised their warning voices against this measure of superfluous insult and injustice, and appealed to the recent issue of Captain Preston's trial as a refutation of the suspicions by which American justice was impeached. Again, the ministers were seconded as before by large majorities in both houses of parliament. Among other active supporters of the measure was Lord George Sackville Germaine, who, for his conduct at the battle of Minden in the preceding reign, had been by the sentence of a court-martial branded with cowardice and incapacity, and disabled from ever again exercising military command ; but who had now become a favourite and minister of George the Third. The three acts were passed in such rapid succession as contributed greatly to enhance their inflammatory operation in America, where they

April 21.

¹ "The Americans," said Colonel Barré, " may be flattered into any thing ; but they are too much like yourselves to be driven. Have some indulgence for your own likeness : respect their sturdy English virtue."

BOOK XI.
 1774. were regarded as forming a complete system of tyranny. *By the first* (exclaimed the organs of popular opinion in all the American states) *thousands of innocent persons are robbed of their livelihood for the act of a few individuals: by the second, our chartered liberties are annihilated; and by the third, our lives may be destroyed with impunity.*

Towards the close of this memorable session of the British parliament, an act was passed with relation to the province of Canada, which merits our notice both on account of the policy and apprehensions which it infers on the part of the royal cabinet, and of the effect which it produced in America, where now it was hardly possible for any measure of the supreme government to inspire confidence or afford satisfaction. It was commonly called *The Quebec Bill*, and the object of its enactments was at once greatly to enlarge, at the expense of the original American possessions of England, the territory of Canada, and totally to alter the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of this province. Both these changes, it was supposed, would be agreeable to the Canadians, and contribute to attach them to the British crown, or at least disincline them to any participation in the sentiments, councils, and enterprises of the ancient colonies of England. After the conquest of Canada, Britain, with the hope of consolidating all her American possessions, by assimilation of their municipal institutions, had introduced into that province a representative assembly, trial by jury, and various other portions of the framework of English polity and jurisprudence. The church of England, too, had been proclaimed the supreme ecclesiastical establishment, and invested with privileges which encroached on the prior possessions of the Roman catholic clergy. It was now declared by the British ministry, (and was certainly true) that these measures were neither equitable in themselves, nor congenial to the tastes and habits of the Canadians: and by the Quebec Bill, a legislative council, of which the members were nominated by the king and held their offices during his pleasure, was substituted in place of a representative assembly; trial by jury (except in criminal cases) was abolished; all the previously superseded laws of France were re-estab-

lished ; and the catholic hierarchy restored to all its pristine wealth, dignity, and privileges.¹

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IV.

If intimidation was the effect which the cabinet of London hoped to produce by its new measures either in Massachusetts or throughout America at large, it reaped from them as much disappointment as had attended all its previous operations. It has been conjecturally maintained by some writers,² that a powerful army despatched from England to Boston at this period, would have either completely overawed the people of New England, or provoked them to plunge abruptly into a revolt which the other provinces were not yet prepared to second. The effect of the measures that were actually embraced, was to produce an increase of irritation, union, and resolution throughout all America. That the new measures might be executed with suitable vigour, the government of Massachusetts, withdrawn from Hutchinson, was conferred on General Gage the commander-in-chief of the royal forces in North America, who, arriving at Boston, obtained from the people a reception of which the courtesy was a tribute partly to his plausible but insincere professions and deportment, and partly to the demerits and unpopularity of his predecessor. He addressed the provincial council in terms which led them to believe that he credited their assurance that the accounts of the disorders in Massachusetts conveyed by Hutchinson to England, had been greatly exaggerated ; and yet at the same time, he himself transmitted to the British government a bitter invective against all the inhabitants and local authorities of the province. In the same vessel which brought the new governor, there arrived the first copy that had been received of the Boston Port-Bill, which was discussed in a numerous town meeting on the following day. It was recommended by this civic convocation, as the most certain means of rescuing the liberties of America from destruction, that all commercial intercourse whatever with Britain and the West Indies should be renounced by the American states, till the repeal of the act. "The impolicy, injustice, inhumanity, and cruelty of this act," they declared, "exceed all our powers of expression: We therefore leave it to the just censure of others, and *appeal*

1774.

Their effects in
America.

May 13.

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1774. Gordon. Franklin. Holmes. Pitkin.

² Botta, and others.

BOOK to *God and the world.*" Authenticated reports of this
 XI. proceeding were instantly conveyed to all the American
 1774. assemblies.

As the recent statutes were successively received from Britain, innumerable copies of them were printed and circulated with amazing dispatch in every quarter of America; and as the great bulk of the people were struck with a warm and resentful sense of the injuries inflicted on the inhabitants of Massachusetts, their indignation was progressively wound up to a formidable pitch by the variety and repetition of provocation. The most diligent exertions, meanwhile, were made by the leading politicians of America, from dissimilar motives, to cherish the general ardour, and yet restrain every partial and irregular ebullition of revolt. Timid and temporizing politicians who either hoped, or were determined never to embrace the extremity of a conflict with the arms of Britain, sought to recommend their pacific counsels without forfeiting their popularity, by freely condemning the conduct of the British government; while the more resolved and ardent patriots, clearly perceiving that the extremity of war was inevitable, sought to increase the zeal and number of their adherents by protracting an irritating controversy, and to consolidate the strength of the American communities by rendering the common sentiments with which they were inspired subservient to a federal union. At Philadelphia, a liberal subscription was made for the relief of such of the poorer inhabitants of Boston as might be deprived of their livelihood by the consequences of the Port-Bill. The Virginian house of burgesses resolved that the 1st of June, the day on which the operation of that bill was to commence, should be set apart by the members as a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer, in order *devoutly to implore the divine interposition to avert the heavy calamity which threatened destruction to their civil rights, and the evils of a civil war; and to give them one heart and one mind firmly to oppose, by all just and proper means, every injury to American rights.* The Earl of Dunmore, a man whose rashness, arrogance, and incapacity rendered him a very unfit guardian of the interests of Britain in circumstances so arduous and perplexing, had been removed from the government of New York, which he held for

a while, and appointed governor of Virginia, where he replaced the popular and lamented Lord Bottetourt. On the publication of the foregoing resolution, he dissolved the assembly; but previous to their separation, eighty-nine of the members signed a declaration, in which they protested, "that an attack made upon one of our sister colonies to compel submission to arbitrary taxes, is an attack made on all British America, and threatens ruin to the rights of all, unless the united wisdom of the whole be applied." They also recommended to the committee of correspondence already established in Virginia, to propose to the respective committees in the other colonies, the appointment of deputies from all the American states to meet *annually in general congress*, in order to watch over the united interest of America, and to deliberate upon and ascertain the measures best calculated to promote it. At New York the numbers and activity of the tory party restrained the assembly and the people at large from publicly expressing their sentiments with regard to the treatment of Massachusetts; but Sears, M'Dougall, and other popular leaders, transmitted to their friends at Boston the strongest assurances of sympathy and support.

On the day when the operation of the Boston Port-bill was appointed to commence, all the commercial business of the capital of Massachusetts was concluded at noon, and the harbour of this flourishing town was closed,—till the gathering storm of the revolution was to re-open it. At Williamsburg in Virginia the day was devoutly consecrated to the religious exercises which had been recommended by the assembly. At Philadelphia it was solemnized by a great majority of the population with every testimonial of public grief: all the inhabitants, except the quakers, shut up their houses; and after divine service a deep and ominous stillness reigned through the city. In other parts of America it was also observed as a day of mourning; and the sentiments thus widely awakened were kept alive and exasperated by the distress to which the inhabitants of Boston were reduced from the continued operation of the Port-bill, and by the fortitude with which they endured it. The rents of all the land-holders in and around Boston now ceased or were greatly diminished: all the wealth which had been vested in warehouses and wharfs

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was rendered unproductive : from the merchants was wrested the commerce which they had reared, and the means alike of providing for their families and paying their debts : all the artificers employed in the numerous occupations created by an extensive trade shared the general hardship ; and a great majority of that class of the community who earned daily bread by their daily labour were deprived of the means of support. Animated, however, by that enduring and dauntless spirit of freedom which had been the parent-principle of the New England communities, the inhabitants of Boston sustained the pressure of this calamity with inflexible fortitude. Their virtue was cheered by the sympathy, and their sufferings mitigated by the generosity of the sister colonies. In all the American states contributions were raised for their relief. Corporate bodies, town-meetings, and provincial conventions, from all quarters, transmitted to them letters and addresses, applauding their conduct and exhorting them to perseverance.¹ Although republican government was neither established nor even as yet openly affected in America, the prospect of it was beginning to dawn on the minds of men, and to educe that public spirit which no other form of civil polity is equally qualified to inspire. The inhabitants of Marble-head offered to the Boston merchants the use of their harbour, wharfs, and warehouses, together with their personal services in lading and unlading goods, free of all expense. The citizens of Salem concluded a remonstrance against the British measures, addressed to General Gage, in this honourable and patriotic strain :—" By shutting up the port of Boston, some imagine that the course of trade might be turned hither, and to our benefit ; but nature, in the formation of our harbour, forbids our becoming rivals in commerce with that convenient mart : and even were it otherwise, we must be lost to every idea of justice, and dead to all the feelings of humanity, could we indulge one thought of raising our fortunes on the ruins of our suffering neighbours." A great, though hitherto dependent country, of which the inhabitants thus resolutely withstood the power of the parent state and approved themselves inca-

¹ Both on this and on other occasions expressions of sympathy and encouragement, and even more substantial marks of friendship were conveyed to the Americans from their friends in Britain. See Note XVII. at the end of the volume.

pable alike of being intimidated by danger, impelled by distress, or seduced by riches to a desertion of the cause of liberty, was ripe for national independence.

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In the midst of the ferment thus renewed in America, the assembly of Massachusetts, which had been adjourned from Boston to Salem by General Gage, revived a project which had formerly emanated from its councils, and the resumption of which we have seen recently suggested by the assembly of Virginia. It was resolved that a general congress or convention of committees, delegated by all the North American states, was highly expedient and necessary, for the purpose of concerting proper measures for the recovery and establishment of the just rights and liberties of the Americans, and for "the restoration of that union and harmony between Great Britain and the colonies, most ardently desired by all good men." In pursuance of this resolution, a committee of five of the most distinguished patriots of Massachusetts was appointed to meet with the committees that might be delegated by other provinces at Philadelphia in the month of September; and authenticated reports of these proceedings were transmitted from Salem to all the representative assemblies in America. The necessity, or at least the advantage, of the proposed congress was universally acknowledged by the friends, more or less ardent and determined, of American liberty; and as these formed every where the great bulk of the population, the measure originated by Massachusetts was gradually adopted by every colony from New Hampshire to South Carolina:—that is, by twelve of the existing North American states; Georgia, the thirteenth and youngest, not yet taking an active part in the transactions, which nevertheless she watched with no indifferent eye. In several of the states the royal governors endeavoured to prevent the election of deputies to the congress, by refusing to convoke the assemblies; but in all these cases the inhabitants formed provincial congresses, by which deputies to the continental congress were elected. When the vote to appoint deputies was carried in the assembly of South Carolina, a proposition was introduced immediately after by some of the members for instructing the delegates to what point it was admissible for them to pledge the concurrence of the province in the measures that might be proposed

June 7.

Proposition of a
general
Congress.

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for general adoption. John Rutledge warmly combated this proposition, insisting that unless the delegates were unshackled by restraint, and suffered to exercise their judgments with manly freedom, their powers of serving the country would be inadequate to the exigencies of the impending crisis; and when the members around him, rather subdued by his energy than inspired to partake it, anxiously inquired, "What ought we to do then with these delegates if they make a bad use of their power?" he replied, with his usual decision and impetuosity, "*Hang them.*" The commissions or instructions, however, which were communicated to the respective committees of delegates by the provinces which they severally represented, directed their attention merely to the re-establishment of the rights and liberties of America as a colonial possession of Britain, and invested them ostensibly with no other function but that of deliberating, and reporting the counsels matured by their united deliberations. But all the ardent friends of America, all the partizans of Britain, and all, in short, except those whose penetration was obstructed by divided hope and purpose, plainly perceived that the formation of a general deliberative council for America, at a crisis like the present, as it was an essential requisite, was also a bold and deliberate approximation to united revolt.

General Gage had now, by an imprudently overstrained exertion of the high powers entrusted to him by the British government, rendered himself nearly as odious to the people of Massachusetts as any of the preceding governors of this province had been. Soon after his arrival two regiments of infantry, with a small park of artillery, were landed at Boston, and encamped on the common: and this armament was gradually reinforced by several regiments from Ireland, New York, Halifax, and Quebec. Gage was desirous of having barracks erected for the accommodation of his troops; but even among the numerous body of labourers who were deprived of the means of support by the operation of the Port-bill, not one could be found willing to accept the governor's offers of employment. The provincial committee of correspondence having revived and extended the ancient non-importation agreement,¹ bestowed on their association the title

¹ Botta asserts, that among the most eager promoters of the non-importation

of *A Solemn League and Covenant*,—a name of evil omen to British monarchy, and which provoked Gage to issue a proclamation reprobating the compact as illegal and even treasonable. He took occasion at the same time to warn the people against *religious hypocrisy*—an insinuation which was resented as an insult to the whole province. Daily some additional instance occurred of the determined purpose of the inhabitants to obstruct the views and recent arrangements of the British government. The grand and petty juries who were summoned to attend the courts of law and perform their important functions, firmly refused to serve under a constitution which they denounced as a tyrannical violation of the provincial charter; and the judges, who dared not venture to fine or even censure them, assumed the right of deciding causes without the intervention of a jury—a proceeding which served only to increase the general aversion and impatience at the existing condition of things. In some places the people assembled in numerous throngs, and so completely filled the court-houses and blocked up every avenue to them, that neither the judges nor their officers could obtain entrance; and when the sheriffs commanded them to make way for the court, they answered, “that they knew no court independent of the ancient laws of their country, and none other would they acknowledge.” The jealousy excited by successive arrivals of British troops at Boston was increased by the position of a British guard on the peninsular avenue, called Boston-neck, and the diligence with which the troops were employed in repairing and manning the fortifications at that entrance of the town. It was with the utmost difficulty that the popular leaders restrained the explosion of an immediate revolt throughout the province, when it was discovered that Gage had despatched a body of the troops during the night to Charlestown, near Boston, and seized all the gunpowder in the arsenal at that place. To gratify and yet regulate the popular sentiment, and to prevent the inhabitants of this province from *breaking the general line of American opposition by rushing forward precipitately to pre-*

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agreement in America, were some hypocritical knaves who monopolized the profits arising from a clandestine importation of the commodities thus excluded from open and general commerce. But he has not thought fit to support his statement by citing any proof either of the reality of such practices, or of the extent to which they were carried.

BOOK XI.
 1774. *mature conflict* (such was the language and the counsel of the more cautious politicians of Pennsylvania), town meetings in utter contempt of British law were held in various parts of Massachusetts, and from them the counsels of a vigorous and yet prudent preparation for the extremity of civil war, were, with more or less disguise, addressed to the people. Gage threatened to disperse these meetings with his troops: but his threats were disregarded and his power defied. The selectmen of the province assured him that he mistook the meaning of the act of parliament with regard to town meetings: that it prohibited only the fresh convocation of such assemblies: and that those which he now threatened to disperse had not been so convoked, but were held in virtue of adjournments enacted for themselves by meetings which had been legally convoked prior to the parliamentary prohibition. The most remarkable demonstration at this period occurred in the assembly of the inhabitants of the county of Suffolk, by which, among many other spirited resolutions, it was declared ¹ “that *no obedience is due from this province to either or any part of the recent acts of parliament*, but that they should be rejected as the attempts of a wicked administration to enslave America.” This assembly farther declared that the decrees of judges acting in submission to the recent violation of the provincial constitution, were entitled to no respect whatever; and that, to obviate the inconvenience attending a suspension of justice, it was now the patriotic duty of creditors to exercise forbearance, and of debtors to fulfil their engagements with all possible diligence. They recommended to all collectors of taxes, and other officers having public money in their hands, to retain it until the government of the province should be placed on a constitutional basis, and to their countrymen at large a prompt and strict attention to their duties as militia-men:—adding,

Suffolk
 Resolu-
 tions.

¹ 6th September. These resolutions were prepared by Dr. Joseph Warren, who afterwards fell at Bunker's Hill. They commenced with the following preamble:—“Whereas the power, but not the justice, the vengeance, but not the wisdom, of Great Britain, which of old persecuted, scourged, and exiled our fugitive parents from their native shores, now pursues us, their guiltless children, with unrelenting severity; and whereas, this *then* savage and uncultivated desert was purchased by the toil and treasure, or acquired by the valour and blood of those our venerable progenitors: to us they bequeathed the dear-bought inheritance; to our care and protection they consigned it; and the most sacred obligations are upon us to transmit the glorious purchase, unfettered by power, unclogged with shackles, to an innocent and beloved offspring.”

that for themselves they were determined to act merely on the defensive, so long as such conduct could be justified by reason and the principles of self-preservation, *but not a moment longer*. They concluded by exhorting the people to avoid all riot and disorder, and by a steady, manly, uniform, and persevering opposition, to convince their enemies that in a contest so important, in a cause so solemn, the conduct of the Americans should be "such as to merit the approbation of the wise, and the admiration of the brave and free, of every age and of every country." These resolves, which in deliberate boldness exceeded any that had yet been embraced in America, were immediately forwarded to the continental congress which was now assembled, and were explicitly sanctioned by this great American council.¹

On the 5th of September the general congress that had been elected by the twelve oldest and most powerful states of America, assembled at Philadelphia. Peyton Randolph of Virginia was chosen president of the assembly, which was forthwith organized for the transaction of business with all the formalities of a regular legislature. In this assembly, which consisted of fifty-five members, the wealth, the talent, the spirit of the Americans,—all the particulars, in short, that command the respect and constitute the character and force of a nation,—were justly and fully represented. In point of the number of their deputies the states were not equally represented: and as their relative importance was not accurately known, it was arranged that each state should give one equal vote upon every question discussed by the congress. It was farther determined that the meetings of the congress should be held with closed doors; and that not a syllable of its transactions should be published, except by order of a majority of the states. This judicious regulation, among other advantageous results, withheld from public view every symptom of doubt or divided purpose and opinion among the members of the congress. The most eminent and respected citizens of the various colonies were now for the first time assembled together. Known to each other by reputation and correspondence, but personally unacquainted; conscious that the eyes of their

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Sept. 5.
Meeting of
the first
American
Congress—

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1774 and for 1775. Gordon. Burk. Eliot. Bradford. Gardin's Anecdotes. Ramsay. Belknap. Pinkin. Holmes.

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 1774. agitated countrymen, together with the rising attention and interest of Europe, were earnestly fixed upon them, and that the liberties of three millions of people, and the destiny of the greatest commonwealth in the world, were staked on the wisdom and vigour of their conduct,—they were deeply and even painfully impressed with the solemn responsibility that attached to the functions they had undertaken. A long and embarrassing silence which followed the organization of the assembly, was broken by Patrick Henry, who with calm yet earnest and majestic eloquence, depicted his country's wrongs, and re-kindled in his colleagues the ardour and emulation which had been for awhile suspended, not by mean timidity, but by a generous awe and profound conception of the grand and swelling scene of which the conduct and issue reposed on their present deliberations. The debates and other transactions of the congress were now conducted with a happy mixture of firmness, prudence, talent, and dispatch. The utmost credit and respect was imparted to their resolves by a unanimity which was chiefly the fruit of concessions made with profound policy by the more ardent and (in principle) uncompromising partizans of liberty.¹ Nevertheless some concessions were extorted or dexterously obtained from the other party in the assembly; and in some of their proceedings we recognise an industrious zeal to inflame the spirits and augment the numbers of the opponents of British prerogative, exerted at the expense of a departure from the strict line of candour and integrity. But when was it seen that even the most meritorious party in a great political quarrel, uniformly bounded its exertions within the limits of honour and moderation? accounted truth and virtue dearer than success, or even equally dear? or refrained from indulging and fomenting that propensity, peculiarly incident to political strife, which prompts its partakers to impute every possible and imagi-

¹ The conduct of Samuel Adams on the present occasion was thus described by Galloway, an American, who at first espoused the cause of his country, and was one of the representatives of Pennsylvania in this congress; but after the disasters which befel the American arms in the close of the year 1776, embraced and adhered to the cause of Britain. "Samuel Adams eats little, drinks little, sleeps little, thinks much, and is most indefatigable in the pursuit of his object. It was this man who, by his superior application, managed at once the factions in congress at Philadelphia and the factions of New England." *Galloway's Historical and Political Reflections on the Rise and Progress of the American Rebellion*, published in England in 1780.

nable depravity to their adversaries? So equally were the talents requisite to the discharge of their functions distributed among the members of this congress, that the leading orators invariably proved, and indeed acknowledged themselves, inferior in the arts of written composition to their less eloquent colleagues.¹

The congress having determined (in opposition to the wishes of the more ardent party) to restrict their attention to such American grievances as had been inflicted subsequently to the year 1763, proceeded to frame and publish a Declaration of the Rights of America; a memorial to all their American countrymen; an address to the king, and one to the inhabitants of Great Britain; a letter to the people of Canada; and a variety of other declarations, resolves, counsels, and remonstrances,—in the composition of which Richard Henry Lee, John Jay, and Philip Livingston, particularly distinguished themselves. They asserted all the claims and rights which we have already so frequently particularized, and demanded the repeal of every statute by which those rights had been invaded. To the king they appealed as a sovereign whose true interest and glory was inseparable from that liberty and happiness of which his ministers were attempting to bereave them. To the people of Britain, they earnestly vindicated the noble value which they attached to a full share in the system of the British constitution; and represented the danger portended to the whole system by the extinction of liberty, its vital principle, in so large and flourishing a department of the empire. “Place us,” they declared, “in the situation in which we were at the close of the last war,—and our former harmony will be restored.” To the Americans, among other grievances, they enumerated the late Quebec bill, which they denounced as a wicked attempt to establish the catholic faith and a model of tyranny within the British empire, for the gratification of a French colony but recently conquered at the expense of the blood and treasure of the

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its pro-
ceedings.

¹ Patrick Henry, in particular, was obliged to resign to others the task of composing the resolves and declarations which his own eloquence had elicited. When he was asked, on his return to Virginia, whom he thought the greatest man in congress, he replied, “If you speak of eloquence, Mr. Rutledge, of South Carolina, is by far the greatest *orator*: but if you speak of solid information and sound judgment, Washington is, unquestionably, the greatest *man* on that floor.”

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1774. ancient colonies of Britain. Yet in their letter to the Canadians, they endeavoured to provoke their discontent by the most plausible and ingenious comments on the Quebec bill; assuring them that the restored system of French law to which they were attached, could not possibly be administered to their satisfaction by English functionaries; and urging them to make common cause with the British Americans, and elect deputies to the continental congress. Similar invitations were addressed to the colonies of St. John's, Nova Scotia, Georgia, and the Floridas. The congress also framed an agreement for the strictest abstinence from all commercial intercourse whatever with Britain, which they warmly recommended to the universal adoption of their countrymen; with the additional advice that the names of all persons rejecting or violating the agreement, should be published in the newspapers, as enemies to the rights of America. With willing conformity to the instructions of many of their constituents, they reprobated the slave-trade as a practice equally injurious and dishonourable to America, and urged an instant and entire renouncement of farther importation or purchase of slaves. During the whole session of the congress, a constant communication was maintained by expresses between Boston and Philadelphia. Apprised by letters from the Massachusetts committee of correspondence, of the operations of General Gage in surrounding Boston with fortifications, and intercepting its intercourse with the country, the congress first addressed a letter to the general requesting him to desist from such measures, and then passed a resolution, approving the resistance of the inhabitants of Massachusetts to the late acts of parliament, and declaring that if a forcible execution of these acts should be attempted, "*in such case all America ought to support Massachusetts in her opposition.*" They recommended, however, to the people of that province, a demeanour guardedly peaceable towards Gage and his troops, and a firm perseverance in the line they had adopted of *acting on the defensive*. They declared, at the same time, that all persons accepting or obeying authority conferred by the statutes which violated the charter of Massachusetts, "*ought to be held in abhorrence by all good men, and considered as the wicked tools of that despotism which is preparing to destroy those rights which*

God, nature, and compact, have given to America.” Yet in this and all the other compositions which issued from the congress, an extraordinary loyalty to the king and a vehement solicitude for the restoration of ancient harmony with Great Britain were repeated in professions, certainly more politic than sincere on the part of many of the members, who had long regarded a peaceful accommodation of the quarrel as impossible. Of the debates which occurred within the walls of the congress, no complete or authentic report was preserved: but from some detached particulars that have been transmitted, it appears that the probability and the consequences of a war with Britain were deliberately discussed. On one occasion, when some of the more scrupulous and temporizing party had endeavoured to moderate the fervour of their colleagues, by reminding them that the British fleets would find little difficulty in battering and destroying all the sea-port towns of America, Christopher Gadsden of South Carolina, thus replied to the alarming suggestion:—“ Our sea-port towns, Mr. President, are composed of brick and wood. If they are destroyed, we have clay and timber enough to rebuild them. But, if the liberties of our country are destroyed, where shall we find the materials to replace them?” An estimate was made by the congress of the total population of the twelve provinces which its members represented, and which, on a very moderate computation, were reckoned to contain 3,026,678 free inhabitants. It is impossible to peruse the recorded transactions of this congress without being impressed with the highest admiration both of the firm and elevated tone, and of the energetic and elegant diction, in which the rights and resolution of America are expressed. Lord Chatham declared that notwithstanding his ardent admiration of the free states of antiquity, the master-spirits of the world, he was constrained to acknowledge that in solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conduct, the American congress was second to no human assembly of which history has preserved the memorial. After a session of eight weeks, the congress enacted its own dissolution; but not without bequeathing the advice that another congress should be held on the 10th of May in the ensuing year at Philadelphia, unless the redress of American grievances

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 1774. should be previously obtained ; and that all the colonies should elect deputies as soon as possible, to be in readiness to form the new congress if events should render its meeting necessary or expedient.

The counsels and resolves of the continental congress obtained the cordial sanction and acquiescence of the provincial congresses and legislative assemblies of all the states except New York, whose assembly, unexpectedly, declined to recognise them. In this province, the unequal distribution of property tended to foster an aristocratic spirit very remote from the general taste and temper elsewhere prevalent in the American states. The city of New York had long been the head-quarters of the British army in America ; and many of the oldest and wealthiest families in the province were connected with persons of rank, influence, and tory principles in Great Britain. Hence, the party attached to the royal government was more numerous and respectable in New York than in any of the other colonies. Yet the apparent secession of this province from the American cause on the present occasion, was much more prejudicial to the British government, by which its importance was greatly over-rated,¹ than to the other American states, which, though dissatisfied, were no way daunted or spirit-stricken by the occurrence. The British government was continually deluded by its tory friends in America. The most staunch and zealous of these partizans customarily exaggerated every trifling instance of success, in order to recommend their own services : while others of them, in whom patriotic attachment was at bottom much stronger than tory predilections, long continued to oppose and reprobate every approach of their countrymen to that revolt, which, when no longer avoidable, they themselves partook. In all the other provinces there was demonstrated for the congress a degree of respect and deference which seemed to invest it with the character more of a legislative body than a council ; and its recommendations were as generally and vigorously carried into effect as the laws of the

¹ The British ministers, says Ramsay, were confirmed in their haughtiest purposes by the seeming defection of New York from the cause of her sister colonies. "They flattered themselves, that when one link of the continental chain gave way, it would be easy to make an impression on the disjointed extremities."

most respected government and best regulated state have ever been. Every particular in its language and tone that savoured of determined resistance, was copied and re-echoed with zealous homage, and even enhanced by the exaggeration which is incident to imitators.

In Massachusetts, the aspect of public affairs became daily more inauspicious to peace and reconciliation. The semblance indeed, of subordination to the British crown was maintained; but so hollow and unsubstantial was this semblance, that every attempt of the governor to exert his authority served only to show how withered and decayed were the bands which yet in theory connected the colonists and their domestic institutions with the royal prerogative. Gage had issued writs for the convocation of an assembly at Salem, on the 5th of October; but, alarmed by the temper of the people and the increasing spread of discontent, he judged it expedient to countermand the writs, by a proclamation suspending the meeting of the assembly. The legality of this proclamation, however, was generally denied in Massachusetts; and the new representatives, to the number of ninety, assembling on the day originally appointed, and neither the governor nor any substitute attending, they resolved themselves into a provincial congress, and soon adjourned to Concord. Here they made choice of Hancock to be their president; and appointed a committee to present to the governor a remonstrance against all his recent measures, concluding with an earnest request that he would desist from the construction of the fortress which he was erecting at the entrance of Boston, "*and restore that place to its neutral state.*" Gage who, though capable of dissimulation, possessed a hotter temper than befitted his elevated station and difficult predicament, took fire at this language: he expressed the warmest displeasure at the supposition of danger from English troops to any but the enemies of England; and desired the committee to convey to the congress his warning counsel that they should hasten to desist from their illegal proceedings. Disregarding his admonition and defying his power, the provincial congress adjourned to Cambridge, where, relieved from all doubts of the general support of America, they embraced and pursued measures of unexampled boldness and vigour. They appointed

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Transac-
tions in
New Eng-
land.

BOOK a committee to prepare a plan for the immediate defence of
 XI. the province ; gave orders for the enlistment of a number of
 1774. the inhabitants to be in readiness, *at a minute's warning*, to
 appear in arms : elected three general officers (Prebble, Ward,
 and Pomeroy) to command these *minute men* and the provin-
 cial militia, in case of their being called to active service ;
 and appointed a committee of safety, and a committee of sup-
 plies. Re-assembling after an adjournment of a few weeks,
 November. the same congress, sensible that their countrymen applauded
 their measures, and that their constituents were prepared to
 yield implicit obedience to their decrees, passed an ordinance
 for the equipment of twelve thousand men to act on any emer-
 gency, and for the enlistment of a fourth part of the militia as
minute-men ; appointed two additional general-officers, Tho-
 mas and Heath ; and sent delegates to New Hampshire,
 Rhode Island, and Connecticut, to request the co-operation
 of these colonies in completing an army of twenty thousand
 men. A committee was likewise appointed to correspond
 with the inhabitants of Canada ; and circular letters were ad-
 dressed to all the clergymen of the province, requesting their
 assistance to avert impending slavery.

And now, all America was aroused by expectation of fearful
 conflict and mighty change.¹ New England, upon which the
 first violence of the storm seemed likely to burst, was agitated
 by rumours and alarms of which the import and the influence
 strikingly portrayed the sentiments and temper of the people.
 Reports that Gage had commanded his troops to attack the
 Massachusetts militia or to fire upon the town of Boston,
 were swallowed with the avidity of rage and hatred, and in-
 stantly crowded the highways with thousands of armed men
 eager to rush forward to death or revenge. Every thing be-
 tokened the explosion of a tempest : and some partial gusts
 announced its near approach, and proved the harbingers of its
 fury. In the close of the year, there reached America a pro-
 clamnation that had been issued by the king, prohibiting the
 exportation of military stores from Great Britain. The inha-
 bitants of Rhode Island, no sooner received intelligence of this

¹ "The events of this time may be transmitted to posterity ; but the agitation of
 the public mind can never be fully comprehended but by those who were witnesses
 of it." Ramsay.

occurrence, than they removed from the public battery about forty pieces of cannon; and the assembly of the province gave orders for procuring arms and martial stores, and for the immediate equipment of a military force. In New Hampshire, a body of four hundred men, suddenly assembling in arms, and conducted by John Sullivan,¹ an eminent lawyer and a man of great ambition and intrepidity, gained possession by surprise of the castle of Portsmouth, and confined the royal garrison till the powder-magazine had been ransacked, and its contents carried away.²

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The accounts which were received in Great Britain of these transactions in America, produced no disposition on the part of the British government to relax the system of coercive measures which it had recently undertaken. In a speech from the throne, the king acquainted the parliament that a most daring spirit of resistance and disobedience to the laws unhappily prevailed in the province of Massachusetts, and had broken forth in fresh violences of a highly criminal nature; that these proceedings had been countenanced and encouraged in his other colonies, and unwarrantable attempts had been made to obstruct the commerce of his kingdom by unlawful combinations; and that he had taken such measures and given such orders as he judged most proper and effectual for carrying into execution the acts passed in the commencement of the year relative to the province of Massachusetts. Addresses which approved and re-echoed this speech, were proposed in both houses; and though they produced warm debates, they were carried by great majorities. In spite of this apparent firmness of purpose, the British cabinet could not contemplate without some hesitation and perplexity, the extension to the other provinces of America of those rigorous measures which had been inflicted with so little of beneficial effect upon Massachusetts: and the parliament was adjourned for the Christmas holidays, without having taken any farther step in relation to colonial affairs. The intelligence, however, which was received during this interval, of the meeting and transactions of the American congress, seemed to preclude farther inde-

Proceed-
ings of the
British
Ministry
and Par-
liament.
Novr. 30.

¹ Afterwards major-general in the American army.

² Ann. Reg. for 1774 and for 1775. Gordon. Belknap. Wirt. Pitkin. Holmes. Rogers' American Biog. Dict. Eliot.

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cision, and imperatively demanded either an instant retraction of the resisted prerogative of Britain, or a vigorous and decisive retort of the blow which her authority had received. The consideration of American affairs was accordingly the first business to which the attention of the re-assembled parliament was directed. At this critical juncture, Lord Chat-ham, after a long retirement, resumed his seat in the House of Lords; and, venerable by years, character, and talent, endeavoured with all the remaining energy of his commanding spirit and impressive eloquence, to dissuade his countrymen from attempting to subdue the Americans by military force. He enlarged on the ruinous events that were impending on the nation in consequence of the project, equally unjust and impracticable, of taxing America: he pronounced a glowing panegyric on the American congress and its transactions, and arraigned the whole ministerial system of American politics; and moved that an address should be presented to the king, to advise and beseech him that, in order to open a happy way to the settlement of the dangerous troubles in America, by beginning to allay ferments and soften animosities in that country, and preventing, above all, some sudden and fatal catastrophe at Boston, he should command General Gage to remove the troops from that town as speedily as the rigour of the season would permit. This motion was supported by the Marquis of Rockingham and Lords Camden and Shelburne, but rejected by a great majority of the peers. A respectable minority, however, in both houses of parliament, was warmly though ineffectually seconded in their efforts for conciliation, by petitions from many of the English merchants and manufacturers, and particularly from the towns of London and Bristol. A few days after, a petition was tendered to the House of Commons from Bollen, Franklin, and Lee, as the agents for the provinces of America, stating that they were directed by the American continental congress to present a memorial from it, the contents of which it was in their power to illustrate by much important information; and praying to be heard at the bar in support of the memorial. A violent debate ensued. The adherents of the ministry, while they refused to hear and discuss the complaints of America, insultingly censured them as containing nothing but *pretended*

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grievances; and a large majority united in rejecting the application. Lord Chatham still persisted in indulging hopes of conciliation; and to this end, with a very unwarrantable reliance on the moderation and placability both of the British government and of the Americans, presented to the House of Lords the outlines of a bill which he entitled *A provisional Act for settling the troubles in America, and for asserting the supreme legislative authority and superintending power of Great Britain over the colonies*. This distinguished statesman had recently cultivated the acquaintance, which in the plenitude of his power he had formerly slighted, of Dr. Franklin; who, less affected by the eclipse of Lord Chatham's official grandeur than the fallen minister himself was, regarded him with undiminished admiration, and willingly met his advances to intimacy. He had imparted the outlines of his bill to Franklin, who was of opinion that, though inadequate to the wishes of the Americans, it would conduce to tranquilize them, and serve as the basis of further treaty. When the measure was broached in the House of Peers, Lord Sandwich, one of the ministers, assailed it with violent and disdainful abuse; refused to believe it the genuine production of any British nobleman; and, turning with a significant look to Franklin who was present, declared it was doubtless the production of an American, and of one well known as the most bitter and mischievous enemy of Great Britain. Lord Chatham in reply vindicated his project, and claimed the whole responsibility attached to its composition; but added, withal, that if he were the first minister of Britain, he would not be ashamed to seek the counsel and assistance of one so well versed in American affairs as Franklin, whom he eulogized as the just object of the world's admiration, and an ornament not merely to the British empire but to human nature. We have seen, indeed, that these were not the views which he entertained and was governed by when he actually *was* the first minister of Britain. The issue of the debate was, that the bill was rejected without even being allowed to lie on the table of the house.¹ This result, in concurrence with the subsequent

¹ The following striking reflections were elicited from Dr. Franklin on this occasion:—"To hear so many of these *hereditary* legislators declaiming so vehemently against, not the adopting merely, but even the *consideration* of a proposal so im-

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1775. conduct of the British government, induced Franklin to think that his farther residence at London was not likely to prove beneficial to his constituents. After a last vain endeavour, in conjunction with Lord Howe, with David Barclay a quaker and descendant of the celebrated Barclay of Urie, and with Dr. Fothergill, to promote an adjustment of the differences between Britain and her colonies,¹ he returned in the spring of the present year to America, where his fellow-citizens of Pennsylvania forthwith elected him a member of the second continental congress.

Notwithstanding the urgency of the crisis, some days elapsed before the British ministers followed up their triumph over Lord Chatham's policy, by bringing forward any proposition of their own. The system which in the interim was matured in the cabinet, did very little credit to the wisdom or consistency of the councils from which it emanated. A joint
Feb. 9. address was finally moved and voted from the Lords and Commons to the king; returning thanks for the communication of documents relative to the state of the British colonies in America; declaring their opinion that *a rebellion* actually existed in the province of Massachusetts; beseeching the king to

portant in its nature, offered by a person of so weighty a character, one of the first statesmen of the age, who had taken up this country when in the lowest despondency, and conducted it to victory and glory through a war with two of the mightiest kingdoms in Europe; to hear them censuring his plan, not only for their own misunderstandings of what was in it, but for their imaginations of what was not in it, which they would not give themselves an opportunity of rectifying by a second reading; to perceive the total ignorance of the subject in some, the prejudice and passion of others, and the wilful perversion of plain truth in several of the ministers; and upon the whole, to see it so ignominiously rejected by so great a majority, and so hastily too, in breach of all decency and prudent regard to the character and dignity of their body, as a third part of the national legislature, gave me an exceeding mean opinion of their abilities, and made their claim of sovereignty over three millions of virtuous sensible people in America, seem the greatest of absurdities, since they appeared to have scarce discretion enough to govern a herd of swine. *Hereditary legislators!* thought I. There would be more propriety, because less hazard of mischief, in having (as in some university of Germany) *hereditary professors of mathematics!*"

¹ It was happy for Franklin's credit with his countrymen, that the very moderate terms which he proposed were rejected by Britain—for certainly they would not, at present, have given contentment to America. In the commencement of great and dangerous contests, it is not uncommon for political leaders to make proffers of accommodation which they have no serious intention, or at least not the power, to fulfil, but of which the expected rejection is counted on as affording a politic imputation against the opposite party. Is it credible that Monsieur Lafitte and his colleagues could have fulfilled the proffers of accommodation which they tendered ineffectually to Charles the Tenth in the midst of the bloody conflict that attended the French revolution of 1830?

pursue the most effectual measures for assuring due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature; and solemnly pledging themselves with their lives and fortunes to support his majesty in the maintenance of the just rights of his crown, and of the two houses of parliament, against all rebellious attempts to infringe them. On the day after this proceeding, Lord North, the prime minister, introduced into the House of Commons a bill for restraining the trade and commerce of the provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, with Great Britain, Ireland, and the British West India islands; and prohibiting those provinces from pursuing any fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. He observed that the penal acts of the preceding year had been confined to Massachusetts alone; but declared that the other New England states had subsequently aided and abetted their offending neighbours, and were, besides, so near to them, that the intentions of parliament would be frustrated unless the restraints which he now proposed were extended to the whole of New England. Many petitions were presented from various parts of Britain against this bill: and the English quakers particularly, in an earnest remonstrance against its cruelty, deprecated the attempt to destroy by famine a body of people whom they pronounced to be as loyal and meritorious as any of the subjects of the British crown. The most urgent petitioners against the measure, were those English merchants who had lent money to American planters on the security of mortgages of their landed estates; and who looked forward with equal alarm to the independence and to the impoverishment of America. After much opposition in both houses, the bill was passed into a law. But while it was yet in dependence, Lord North suddenly announced, and prevailed with the parliament to sanction, an overture which he termed a *conciliatory proposition*. The purport of it was, that parliament would forbear to tax any colony which should make provision for contributing its proportion of the expenses attending the common defence of the empire, and for the support of civil government and the administration of justice within its own confines. This was a concession somewhat vague and equivocal in its import; for it neither recognised nor denied the distinction

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between internal and external or commercial taxation. Yet, tendered but a few years before, it might have prevented or retarded the American revolution. Introduced as it was, at this late stage of the controversy, when passion had controlled speculation, and effaced nice distinctions,—and incorporated as it was with a system of increased rigour towards America,—it neither could nor was seriously intended to produce reconciliation. Indeed the minister, while he actually weakened the force of his menaces by this show of hesitation, was so much afraid of seeming to bend, that he rendered his present device utterly powerless by openly acknowledging that it was designed to divide America and to unite all parties in Great Britain. The proposition was conveyed to the several colonial governors in a circular letter from Lord Dartmouth: but it was treated with contempt by the Americans, who were too much impressed with the expediency of union, and too well aware of the nature and state of the contest in which they were embarked, to be deceived by an overture that was conciliatory only in name. Scarcely had the bill been passed for restraining the trade of New England, when intelligence was received that the inhabitants of the middle and southern states of America were supporting their northern brethren in every measure of opposition. This produced an additional act for extending the restraints of the former one to New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina. Whatever were the views that prompted the discrimination thus exercised by the British government, —the exemption of New York, Delaware, and North Carolina from this penal enactment, was considered in America as calculated to promote disunion: and the three exempted colonies, spurning the proffered grace, voluntarily declared their participation in the restraints imposed on their neighbours. So infelicitous were the rulers of Britain in all their measures, and so little acquainted with the disposition and temper of the people of America! At the very time when the parliament was enacting the restraining laws, the assembly of New York was preparing a petition to parliament for redress of grievances; and it both provoked and confounded those who had recently vaunted the submissive loyalty and moderation of this province, to find its assembly peremptorily declare “that

exemption from internal taxation, and the exclusive power of providing for their own civil government and the administration of justice in the colony, are esteemed by them their undoubted and unalienable rights.”¹ The body politic, composed of the parent state and her colonial progeny, was now so gangrened and overcharged with evil humours, that no imaginable system of remedial policy could have arrested or even considerably modified the headlong pace with which it was hastening to dissolution: and the political physicians of Britain to whom the treatment of the case was confided, had in reality no other choice than to suffer that great catastrophe to ensue as the natural issue of the malady, or themselves to accomplish it by the instrumentality of hopeless operation. It was an unfortunate circumstance for the British government and a strong reason for dissolving its colonial dominion, that it was disabled by distance from adapting its measures to the actual and immediate posture of affairs in America. Months elapsed between the occurrence of events in the colonies, and the arrival of the relative directions from England: and every symptom of the political exigence had frequently undergone a material change before the concerted prescription, good or evil, was applied. Before the recent proceedings in parliament could produce any effect, or were even known in America, the quarrel had made a fearful stride; and the odious rigour and despised pretences of conciliation which those measures disclosed, were announced to a people already roused to fury by the shock of war and the effusion of blood. The example of Massachusetts in preparing for defence had been followed by the other provinces: and warlike counsels were boldly broached in the provincial assemblies and con-

Defensive
prepara-
tions in
America.

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1775. Gordon. Franklin's Memoirs. Holmes. Pitkin. The British government and the American Tories (blinded by insolence, ignorance, and rage) grossly deceived each other, each relying a great deal too far on the other's force and activity.

It is likewise true that the partizans of liberty in America were dangerously deceived by the effect of the violence and intolerance exerted for the promotion of this cause in several of the provinces. A delusive appearance of unanimity was frequently produced in communities where a strong minority were in their hearts dissenters from the general will, and ready, on the first favourable opportunity, openly to range themselves against the predominant domestic party by whose violence they were overawed. Persecution, whether exerted in religious or in political controversy, naturally tends to the production of no better qualities than hypocritical zeal or timid acquiescence. Seeking to make partizans, it makes enemies of those who might otherwise have been contented with a passive neutrality.

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gresses. When¹ some members of the Virginian assembly urged the postponement of these preparations; reminding their colleagues of the power of Britain and the comparative weakness of America; and insisting that it would be time enough to fly to arms when every well-founded hope of peace had entirely vanished,—Patrick Henry, with vehement and victorious eloquence, contended that *that time had already come*. “It is natural,” said he, “to man, to indulge in the illusions of hope. We are prone to shut our eyes against a painful truth, and listen to the song of that enchantress till she transforms us into beasts. *There is no longer any room for hope*. We must *fight*. I repeat it, sir, we *must* fight. An appeal to arms and to the God of Hosts is all that is left us. They tell us that we are weak, and unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be when our supineness shall have enabled *our enemies* to bind us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak,² if we make use of those means which the God of nature has placed in our power. Three millions of people armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as ours, are invincible by any force which *our enemy* can send against us. Nor shall we fight our battles alone. That God who presides over the destinies of nations, will raise up friends to aid us. The battle is not to the strong alone; but to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, we have no longer a choice. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat but in submission and slavery. Our chains are forged: their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston. The war is inevitable—and let it come! Gentlemen may cry, Peace, peace—but there is no peace. The war is actually begun. The next gale that sweeps from the north, will bring to our

¹ March 23.

² “Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just,” exclaimed Richard Henry Lee, in his speech on the same occasion. In another citation from Shakspeare, Lee shortly after foretold the final appeal to arms. On the adjournment of the assembly, while he was taking leave of two of his colleagues who were standing with him in the porch of the capitol, he inscribed, with a pencil, these lines on one of the pillars:—

“When shall we three meet again?
In thunder, lightning, and in rain;
When the hurley-burley’s done,
When the battle’s lost and won.”

ears the clash of resounding arms." These last words proved prophetic. CHAP.
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The provincial congress which had now superseded the general court of Massachusetts, assembling in the beginning of February, published an address informing the people that from the large reinforcements of troops that were expected at Boston, the tenor of intelligence from Britain and other indications, they had reason to apprehend that the sudden destruction of the colony was intended; and urging in the strongest terms the militia in general, and the minute-men in particular, to spare neither time, pains, nor expense to perfect themselves in military preparation. They also passed resolutions for procuring and making fire-arms and bayonets; and decreed an issue of provincial bills of credit to the amount of fifty thousand pounds.¹ The military preparations which they recommended were diligently pursued, and artillery and provisions were collected at various places. General Gage was not an inattentive spectator of these proceedings. Having learned that some military stores belonging to the colonists were deposited in Salem, he despatched Colonel Leslie from Castle William, on the 26th of February, with one hundred and forty soldiers in a transport to seize them. The troops, landing at Marble-head, proceeded to Salem; but not finding there the object of their expedition, they advanced to the draw-bridge leading to Danvers, whither the stores had been removed. Here a number of the country people had assembled, and on the opposite side of the river, the American Colonel Pickering had mustered thirty or forty armed men, and drawn up the bridge. Leslie commanded them to lower it: but as they peremptorily refused, he was preparing to cross the river in some boats that were moored to the shore, when the peasantry around him, perceiving his intention, sprang into the boats and scuttled them with axes. The day of this occurrence was a Sunday; and as most of the neighbouring inhabitants were at church, this circumstance (as Gage was supposed to have anticipated) prevented the diffusion of alarm and diminished the concourse of armed Ame-

¹ On these bills of credit was represented an American grasping a sword, and pointing to the well-known words of Algernon Sidney:—*Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem.*

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April 18. A magazine of military stores had been collected with silent but laborious assiduity at the inland town of Concord, about eighteen miles from Boston, when Gage, apprised of this circumstance, resolved to destroy the hostile apparatus. For this service, he detached at night Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, who, at the head of eight hundred grenadiers and light infantry, commenced a silent and expeditious march for Concord. Although several British officers who dined at Cambridge on the preceding day, had taken the precaution to post themselves at various points on the road leading to Con-

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cord, in order to intercept any expresses that might be sent from Boston to alarm the country, yet sundry messengers, despatched for this very purpose, contrived to elude their vigilance and communicated an alarm which was rapidly spread by church bells, signal guns, and volleys of small arms. The British troops arriving at Lexington on the following morning at five o'clock, found about seventy of the minute-men of that town assembled in arms on the parade. Major Pitcairn who commanded the British van, approaching the Americans, exclaimed—"Disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms, and disperse!" This order, which they refused to obey, was followed by a discharge from the British troops, whose fire, huzza, and rapid advance compelled their handful of adversaries to an instant flight. The fire continued after the dispersion, and the fugitives stopped, rallied, and returned it. Eight Americans were killed, and several were wounded in this affair. The British detachment now pressed forward to Concord. Here the inhabitants, roused by the signals of alarm, were drawn up in order of defence; but observing the number of the regulars to be more than they could prudently encounter, they retired across the north bridge to some distance from the town, and waited for reinforcements. A party of British light infantry followed them and took possession of the bridge, while the main body of the troops entered the town and hastened to execute their commission. They had leisure to spike two cannons, and to cast into the river five hundred pounds of ball and sixty barrels of flour; and this paltry issue was all the gain they reaped from a violent and sanguinary enterprise that was to kindle the flames of war between two nations. Meanwhile, the provincial militia were reinforced; and Major Buttrick of Concord, assuming the command of them, advanced towards the bridge. Unaware of the transaction at Lexington, and anxious that the Americans should not be the aggressors, he ordered his followers to refrain from giving the first fire; and this order, so difficult to agitated and undisciplined men, he enforced by the example of his own lively yet calm and determined courage. As he advanced, the British detachment which had occupied the bridge, retired to the Concord side of the river; and on his nearer approach, they fired and killed a captain and one of

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the privates of the American militia. The Americans instantly returned the fire : a skirmish ensued ; and the regulars were forced to give ground with some loss. They were soon joined by the main body ; and the whole force commenced a precipitate retreat. All the inhabitants of the adjoining country were by this time in arms ; and they attacked the retreating troops in every direction ; some pressing on their rear, and others firing upon them from behind stone walls and other coverts. Thus harassed during a retreat of six miles, the British re-entered Lexington, where, most opportunely for them, they were joined by Lord Percy who arrived with a detachment of nine hundred men and two pieces of cannon. After halting two hours at Lexington, the troops, now amounting in number to about seventeen hundred, resumed their march ; and the Americans instantly renewing their attacks, continued to pour an irregular but galling fire upon the enemy's front, flanks, and rear. The close discharge of arms from behind stone walls by expert marksmen, exposed the troops to considerable danger, and produced a good deal of confusion : but though unable to repel or even effectually retort the attacks they sustained from every quarter, the British kept up a brisk retreating fire on their assailants.¹ A little after sunset they reached Bunker's Hill, where exhausted with the labours of this disastrous day, they remained during the night, shielded from farther attack by the guns of the Somerset man-of-war ; and next morning they re-entered Boston. Of the Americans engaged in this affair, fifty were killed and thirty-four wounded. Of the British, sixty-five were killed, one hundred and eighty wounded, and twenty-eight made prisoners. To their wounded prisoners the Americans behaved with the utmost tenderness and humanity, and apprised Gage that he was at liberty to send the surgeons of his own army to minister to them.

The provincial congress of Massachusetts being at this time assembled, instantly despatched to England an account of the conflict that had taken place, with depositions intended

¹ Lord Percy, as he marched through the country in the morning, with taunting derision of the Americans, caused his band to play that beautiful air to which the ridiculous name of *Yankee-Doodle* has been given. But as he returned in the afternoon, the Americans, with keener wit, called out to him that he should now make the band play *Chevy-Chase*.

to prove that the British had been the aggressors. They also transmitted an address to the inhabitants of Britain, in which professions of loyalty to the king were united with assurances of a determination *not tamely to submit* to the persecution and tyranny of his evil ministers. *Appealing to Heaven* (they warmly protested) *for the justice of our cause, we determine to die or be free.*

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As the controversy between Britain and her colonies was to be finally decided by an appeal to arms, it was fortunate for the Americans that the first bloodshed by which this dire prospect was illustrated, occurred in New England,—where the people were so much connected with each other by consanguinity and by similarity of manners, condition, and of religious and political sentiments, that the slaughter of a single individual was resented with the deepest concern and indignation by all the neighbouring communities of his countrymen.

The affair of Lexington proved accordingly the signal of war. When the tidings reached Connecticut, the young men, burning with rage and valour, flew to arms, and desired to be conducted to the assistance of Massachusetts; and aged parents, sharing the zeal of their sons, charged them to *behave like men or never to return*. Israel Putnam, one of the most intrepid of mankind, and the most experienced and respected officer in this province, received the intelligence as he was ploughing the fields which he had often before defended against French and Indian foes. It was the sentiment of all who ever witnessed the achievements or partook the campaigns of this veteran, that *Putnam dared to lead where any dared to follow*. He instantly unyoked his team; and with that prompt but inflexible determination which always marked his character, cast all private cares and concerns behind him, and marched at the head of a numerous body of his countrymen to the neighbourhood of Boston. Here was already assembled an insurgent force of twenty thousand men who formed a line of encampment from Roxbury to the river Mystic and kept the British troops blocked up within the peninsula of Boston. A kindred spirit of courageous preparation broke forth in others of the American states. Troops were raised, and funds provided for their support: the public money in the provincial treasuries was seized; and forts, magazines, and arsenals were

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secured by the provincial militia. At New York, the precarious ascendancy which the tories had been able to obtain, was completely swept away by the flow of popular spirit and sympathy which the Lexington conflict provoked; and the public voice of the province now proclaimed the determination of its people to espouse the quarrel and share the fate of their American countrymen. General Gage, meanwhile, cooped up in Boston, expecting an attack from the provincial troops by which he was blockaded, and dreading the co-operation they might receive from their friends in the city, offered to all who might desire it, a free egress from Boston, on condition of an entire surrender of their arms. Though the condition was fulfilled, many of the citizens and their families who desired to quit the place were detained by Gage, who pretended that some arms were still concealed, and who in reality was overawed by the violence with which the American tories protested against the surrender of hostages whose presence alone, they believed, restrained the besiegers from setting fire to the town.

It was readily perceived by all who now reckoned war inevitable, that the possession of Ticonderoga and Crown Point would confer an important advantage on America, and indeed was indispensable to her security. Struck with this consideration, some of the principal inhabitants of Connecticut conceived the bold design of seizing those fortresses by surprise. About forty volunteers proceeded accordingly from Connecticut to Bennington in the territory of Vermont, where the projectors of the expedition had proposed to meet Colonel Ethan Allen, a man of singularly daring spirit and possessed of great influence in that district,¹ whom they intended to engage to conduct the enterprise, as well as to raise among the hardy mountaineers around him the necessary force for its execution. Allen readily entering into their views, met them with two hundred and thirty men at Castleton, where they were unexpectedly joined by Colonel Benedict Arnold, a bold and active American officer, who having conceived the same project, was admitted to act as an auxiliary to Allen with whom the chief

¹ He had been formerly outlawed by the government of New York (see Appendix III. *ante*) for encouraging the people of Vermont to resist its claim of jurisdiction over them.

command remained. Proceeding on their adventurous expedition, Allen and his followers arrived in the night of the 9th of May on the banks of Lake Champlain opposite to Ticonderoga. Embarking in boats, which were procured with some difficulty, Allen and Arnold crossed the lake with eighty-three of their men, and accomplished a landing near the fortress without being discovered. The two colonels, after contending who should enter first, advanced together abreast, and made their way into the fort at the dawn of day. All the garrison were buried in sleep, except a sentry who attempted to fire upon the party; but his piece missing fire, he retreated through the covered way to the parade. The Americans rushed after him, and having formed themselves in a hollow square, gave three huzzas which instantly aroused the garrison. An inconsiderable skirmish with cutlasses or bayonets ensued. De la Place, the commander was required to surrender the fort. "By what authority?" he asked, with no unnatural surprise. "I demand it," replied Allen, "in the name of the Great Jehovah, and of the Continental Congress. This extraordinary summons was instantly obeyed; and the fort with its valuable stores and forty-nine prisoners, was surrendered without farther resistance. Colonel Seth Warner was then despatched with a party of men to Crown Point, and he easily succeeded in gaining possession of this place, in which a serjeant and twelve privates formed the whole of the garrison. The important pass of Skenesborough was surprised and occupied at the same time by a detachment of volunteers from Connecticut; and here a number of soldiers and several pieces of cannon were taken. A British sloop of war lying off St. John's, at the northern extremity of Lake Champlain, was boarded and captured by Arnold,—who commenced in this manner a brief but brilliant career, too soon clouded by private vice, vanity, and prodigality, and finally tarnished by public treachery and dishonour. And thus, the Americans without the loss of a single man, acquired by a bold and decisive stroke two important posts, a great quantity of artillery and ammunition, and the command of Lake George and Lake Champlain. The continental congress learned this enterprise with mingled sentiments of exultation and anxiety. Dreading the appearance of aggression in widening the breach between

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Britain and America, they recommended to the provincial committees of New York and Albany to cause the artillery and stores to be removed from Ticonderoga to the south end of Lake George, and to make an exact inventory of them, "in order that they may be safely returned when the restoration of the former harmony between Great Britain and the colonies, so ardently wished for on our part, shall render it prudent and consistent with the overruling law of self-preservation."¹

The councils of New England were as vigorous as her military operations. On the 5th of May the provincial congress of Massachusetts published a resolution importing "that General Gage has, by his late transactions, utterly disqualified himself from serving this colony, either as its governor, or in any other capacity; and that, therefore, no obedience is in future due to him; but that, on the contrary, he ought to be considered and guarded against as an unnatural and inveterate enemy to the country." From this period the authority of Gage in Massachusetts reposed on the bayonets of his soldiers, and was confined within the walls of the city which they occupied. But in the close of the same month his prospects seemed to brighten; and his power at least gained an increase from the arrival at Boston of a considerable accession to his troops from Britain, along with the Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, all of whom had acquired a high military reputation in the last war. Gage thus reinforced prepared to act with more vigour and decision than he had latterly displayed. He began by issuing a proclamation which offered, in the king's name, a free *pardon* to all the American insurgents who should forthwith lay down their arms, and return to the habits and duties of peaceable subjects, "excepting only from the benefit of such pardon, Samuel Adams and John Hancock,—whose offences," it was added, "are of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment;" and announced the operation of martial law in Massachusetts, "as long as the present unhappy occasion shall require." To signalize Adams and Hancock in this manner, was to employ the only means within his competence of endearing these men and their

¹ Wirt. Ann. Reg. for 1775. Gordon. Rogers. Eliot. Bradford. Holmes. Pitkin. Dwight. Ramsay.

principles to the Americans, whom the proclamation instead of intimidating or dividing, served but additionally to unite and embolden.

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From the movements visible among the British troops, and their apparent preparations for some active enterprise, the Americans were led to believe that Gage designed to issue from Boston and penetrate into the interior of Massachusetts: whereupon, with a view to anticipate or derange the supposed project of attack, the provincial congress suggested to Putnam and Thomas who held the chief command in the army which blockaded Boston, that measures should be taken for the defence of Dorchester Neck, and that a part of the American force should occupy an intrenched position on Bunker's Hill, which ascends from and commands the entrance of the peninsula of Charlestown. Orders were accordingly communicated to Colonel Prescott, with a detachment of a thousand men, to take possession of that eminence: but by some mistake, Breed's Hill instead of Bunker's Hill was made the scene of the projected entrenchment. About nine o'clock of the evening, the detachment moved from Cambridge, and silently traversing Charlestown Neck, gained the summit of Breed's Hill unobserved. This eminence is situated at the extremity of the peninsula nearest to Boston; and is so elevated as to overlook every part of that town, and so near it as to be within the reach of cannon shot. The American troops, who were provided with entrenching tools, immediately commenced their work, which they pursued with such diligence that before the morning arrived, they had thrown up a redoubt of considerable dimensions, and with such deep silence that, although the peninsula was nearly surrounded by British ships of war and transports, their operations were only first disclosed to the astonished army of Britain by the dispersion of the nocturnal darkness under whose shade they had been conducted. At break of day the alarm was communicated at Boston by a cannonade which the Lively sloop of war promptly directed against the American works. A battery of six guns was soon after opened upon them from Copp's Hill at the north end of Boston. Under an incessant shower of bullets and bombs, the Americans firmly and indefatigably persevered in their labour, until they had completed a small breast-work extending from

June 16.

June 17.

B O O K the east side of the redoubt to the bottom of the hill, towards
 XI. the river Mystic. We have remarked the mistake which
 1775. occasioned a departure from the original plan of the American
 enterprise, and led to the assumption of Breed's Hill instead
 of the other eminence which it had been first proposed to
 occupy. By a corresponding mistake, the memorable engage-
 ment which ensued has received the name of *The Battle of
 Bunker's Hill*,—a name which there is now no wisdom in at-
 tempting to divest of its long retained celebrity, and its ani-
 mating influence upon the minds of men. It would be wiser
 perhaps, to change the name of an insignificant hill than of a
 glorious battle in which the prize contested was the freedom
 of North America.

Battle of
 Bunker's
 Hill.

Gage perceiving the necessity of dislodging the Americans
 from the position which they had so suddenly and daringly
 assumed, detached about noon on this service the Generals
 Howe and Pigot, with ten companies of grenadiers, ten of
 light infantry, and a suitable proportion of field artillery.
 These troops crossing the narrow bay interjected between
 Boston and the American position, landed at Moreton's Point,
 and immediately formed in order of battle: but perceiving
 that the Americans, undaunted by this demonstration, and
 with spirits wound up to their full height, firmly waited the
 attack,—they refrained from advancing till the arrival of a
 reinforcement from Boston. Meanwhile the Americans were
 also reinforced by a body of their countrymen commanded by
 the Generals Warren and Pomeroy; and the troops on the
 open ground, tearing up some adjoining post and rail fences,
 and fixing the stakes in two parallel lines before them, filled
 up the space between with new-mown grass, and formed a
 cover from the musketry of the enemy.

The British troops, strengthened now by the arrival of the
 second detachment, and formed in two lines, moved forward
 to the conflict, having the light infantry on the right wing
 commanded by General Howe, and the grenadiers on the left
 conducted by General Pigot; the former to attack the American
 lines in flank, and the latter the redoubt in front. The attack
 was begun by a heavy discharge of field-pieces and howitzers;
 the troops advancing slowly, and halting at short intervals
 to allow time for the artillery to produce effect on the works.

During their advance, General Gage, who surveyed the field of battle from Copp's Hill, caused the battery at this place to bombard and set fire to the village of Charlestown, situated beneath the position of the Americans, whom, from the direction of the wind, he expected to annoy by the conflagration. Charlestown, a neat and hitherto happy village, containing about four hundred houses, chiefly built of wood, was quickly wrapped in one general blaze of destruction; but a sudden change of the wind occurring at this crisis, carried the smoke to a quarter which neither covered the approach of the British nor occasioned inconvenience to the Americans. The conflagration added a horrid grandeur to the interesting scene that was now unfolding to the eyes of a countless multitude of spectators, who, thronging all the heights of Boston and its neighbourhood, awaited, with throbbing hearts, the approaching battle. The American troops having permitted Howe's division to approach unmolested within a hundred yards of their works, then poured in upon them such a deadly and confounding fire of small arms, that the British line was broken in an instant, and fell precipitately back in headlong rout towards the landing place. This disorder was repaired by the vigorous exertions of the officers, who again brought up the repulsed troops to the attack: but the Americans renewing their fire with a precision of aim derived from their habits of life, and unexampled perhaps in the conduct of any former battle fought since the invention of gunpowder, again spread such carnage through the hostile ranks, that the British were a second time driven back in complete confusion. At this critical juncture General Clinton, arriving upon the field from Boston, aided the efforts of Howe and the other officers in rallying the disheartened troops, who, with some difficulty, were a third time led on to the charge. The Americans had been but scantily supplied with cartridges, partly from an overstrained attention to economy in the consumption of an article urgently needed and sparingly possessed by their countrymen; and partly in deference to the counsels of some old officers whose ideas of battle were derived from their experience in hunting, and in the system (very similar to that employment) of Indian warfare; and who insisted that as every shot ought to kill a man, so to give the troops any

B O O K more ammunition than was absolutely necessary, was to tempt
XI. them to neglect accuracy of aim and throw their fire away.
1775. To the discredit of this counsel, the powder of the Americans
now began to fail, and consequently their fire to slacken.
The British at the same time brought some of their cannons
to bear upon the position of the Americans, and raked the
inside of the breastwork from end to end; the fire from the
ships, batteries, and field-artillery was redoubled; and the
redoubt, attacked on three sides at once with impetuous
valour, was carried at the point of the bayonet. Yet so des-
perate was the resistance of its defenders, that even after
their officers had commanded a retreat, they continued to
fight till the redoubt was half filled with the assailants.
During these operations, Pigot's division was attempting to
force the left point of the breast-work, preparatory to an
attack on the flank of the American line; but while his troops
advanced with signal bravery, they were received with un-
yielding firmness and determination. The Americans in this
quarter, as well as at the redoubt, reserved their fire until the
near approach of the enemy, and then poured in their shot
with such well-directed aim as to mow them down in whole
ranks at every volley. But no sooner was the redoubt lost,
than the breast-work also was necessarily abandoned. And
now the Americans had to effect their retreat over Charles-
town Neck, which was completely raked by the guns of the
Glasgow man-of-war, and of two floating batteries: but great
as was the apparent danger, the retreat was accomplished
with inconsiderable loss. The British troops were too much
exhausted, and had suffered too severely to improve their
dear-bought victory by more than a mere show of pursuit.
They had brought into action about three thousand men, and
their killed and wounded amounted to one thousand and
fifty-four. The number of Americans who had been engaged
was fifteen hundred, and their killed, wounded, and missing,
amounted to four hundred and fifty-three. They lost some
gallant officers, of whom the most generally known and
lamented was Joseph Warren a young physician of Boston,
lately promoted to the rank of general in the American army;
and who having ably and successfully animated his country-

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men to resist the power of Britain, now gallantly fell in the first battle that their resistance produced.¹ And thus ended a day that showed too late to the infatuated politicians of Britain, how greatly they had underrated the arduous difficulties of the contest they had provoked; and how grossly those men had deceived them who had confidently predicted that *the Americans would not fight*.² No other imaginable result of the conflict could have been more unfavourable to the prospects of Britain, whose troops, without being animated by brilliant victory or exasperated by disgraceful defeat, were depressed by a success of which it was evident that a few more such instances would prove their ruin.

Second
American
Congress—

The second continental congress of America had assembled, meanwhile, at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, when Peyton Randolph was again elected president by his colleagues. Hancock immediately laid before this assembly a collection of documentary evidence tending to prove that in the skirmish of Lexington, the king's troops had been the aggressors; together with a report of the proceedings of the provincial congress of Massachusetts on that occasion. The time had now arrived when the other provinces of America were required definitively to resolve, and unequivocally to declare, whether they would make common cause with the New England states in actual war, or abandoning them and the object for which they had all so long jointly contended, submit to the absolute supremacy of the British parliament. The congress did not hesitate which part of the alternative to embrace, but unanimously determined³ that as hostilities had actually commenced, and large reinforcements to the British army were expected, the several provinces should be immediately *put in a state of defence*; adding, however, *that as they ardently wished for a restoration of the harmony formerly subsisting between the mother country and the colonies*, they were

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1775. Bradford. Gordon. Dwight. The widow of General Warren afterwards composed and published a history of the American Revolution.

² General Burgoyne the British commander, in narrating the engagement that occurred between his own army and the American troops on the 7th of October, 1777, remarked, "If there be any persons who continue to doubt that the Americans possess the quality and faculty of fighting, — call it by whatever term they please,—they entertain a prejudice that it would be very absurd longer to contend with."

³ May 26.

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resolved for the promotion of this desirable object to present a humble and dutiful petition to the king. Yet the members of this body perfectly well knew that the king and his ministers and parliament, not only denied the legality of their assemblage and their right to represent the sentiments of America, but openly denounced them as a seditious and traitorous association. But it is a general practice of mankind, and the peculiar policy of governments to veil the most implacable animosity and the most decisive martial purpose under a show of professions more than ordinarily forbearing and pacific: nor can any proclamation be more ominous of violence, than that in which a kingdom or commonwealth judges it expedient to vaunt its own moderation. Massachusetts, having informed the congress of her destitution of regular government, and solicited advice for the remedy of this defect, received in answer the counsel that the freeholders should elect the members of a representative assembly; that these representatives should appoint councillors; and that the representatives and councillors should together provisionally exercise the powers of government. This advice was immediately followed. Equal efficacy attended a recommendation addressed to all the colonies, that they should appoint *committees of general safety* to guard and administer the public interest during the occasional recess of the provincial assemblies. Besides their second petition to the king, the congress renewed their applications to Canada and other places, and voted an admirable address to the inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland. In this last composition, the British people were addressed with the endearing appellations of "Friends, Countrymen, and Brethren;" and entreated by these and every other of the ties which bound the two nations together, seriously to receive and consider the present and probably final attempt to prevent their dissolution. After again recapitulating former injuries, and recounting the recent acts of hostility in the wanton destruction of American life and property, they demanded *if the descendants of Britons could tamely submit to this?* "No!" they added, "we never will! while we revere the memory of our gallant and virtuous ancestors, we never can surrender those glorious privileges for which they fought, bled, and conquered. Admit that your fleets and armies can destroy

our towns and ravage our coasts: these are inconsiderable objects — things of no moment to men whose bosoms glow with the ardour of liberty. We can retire beyond the reach of your navy; and, without any sensible diminution of the necessaries of life, enjoy a luxury which, from that period, *you* will want,—the luxury of being free. Our enemies charge us with sedition. In what does this sedition consist? In our refusal to submit to unwarrantable acts of injustice and cruelty? If so, show us a period in your history in which you have not been equally seditious. We are reproached with harbouring the project of independence; but what have we done, that can warrant this reproach? Abused, insulted, and contemned, we have carried our dutiful petitions to the throne; and we have applied to *your* justice for relief. What has been the success of our endeavours? The clemency of our sovereign is unhappily diverted; our petitions are treated with indignity; our prayers answered by insults. Our application to you remains unnoticed, and leaves us the melancholy apprehension of your wanting either the will or the power to assist us. Even under these circumstances, what measures have we taken that betray a desire of independence? *Have we called in the aid of those foreign powers who are the rivals of your grandeur?* Have we taken advantage of the weakness of your troops, and hastened to destroy them before they were re-inforced. Have not we permitted them to receive the succours we could have intercepted? Let your enemies and ours persuade you that in this we were influenced by fear or any other unworthy motive. The lives of Britons are still dear to us. When hostilities were commenced—when, on a late occasion, we were wantonly attacked by your troops, though we repelled their assaults and returned their blows, yet we lamented the wounds they obliged us to inflict: nor have we yet learned to rejoice at a victory over Englishmen.” After reminding the British people that the extinction of liberty in America would be only a prelude to its eclipse in Britain, they concluded in these terms:—“A cloud hangs over your head and ours. Ere this reaches you, it may probably burst upon us. Let us then (before the remembrance of former kindness be obliterated) once more repeat these appellations which are ever grateful to our ears,—let us entreat

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 1775. Heaven to avert our ruin, and the destruction that threatens our *friends, brethren, and countrymen*, on the other side of the Atlantic." Aware that a great deal of discontent existed in Ireland, the congress conceived the hope of rendering this sentiment conducive to the multiplication of their own partizans and the embarrassment of the British court: and to this end, in their address to Ireland, they alluded to the past oppression and present opportunities of this people, with a politic show of sympathy and friendship calculated at once to foment agitation in Ireland, and to attach to themselves the numerous bands of Irish emigrants who had resorted and still continued to resort to the American provinces. "The innocent and oppressed Americans," they declared, "naturally desire the sympathy and good-will of a humane and virtuous people who themselves have suffered under the rod of the same oppressor."¹ Having thus made their last appeals to the king and people of Great Britain, the congress proceeded to organize their military force, and emitted bills of credit to the amount of three millions of Spanish milled dollars (for the redemption of which the confederated colonies were pledged) to defray the expenses of the war.² Articles of war for the regulation of the continental army were framed; measures were pursued for the enlistment of regiments; and a declaration or manifesto was published, setting forth the causes and necessity of recourse to arms. A battalion of artillery was formed, and the command of it entrusted to Henry Knox a native of Boston, whom the force of his genius and the peculiar bent of his taste and studies, had already qualified to sustain the part of an accomplished master of the art of war, and whose successful exertions in the sequel to improve the American ordnance and artillery excited the surprise and admiration of the most

prepares
for war—

¹ Every person acquainted with British history is aware of the important concessions in favour of the catholics of Ireland, extorted from Britain by the progress of her quarrel with America.

² This expedient was preferred to direct taxation, which, indeed, the congress was not authorized to impose. The Americans, it has been said, during the whole contest, discovered a much greater readiness to risk their lives than their fortunes in defence of their liberty. Their leaders, accustomed to declaim against all taxation but that which emanated from the provincial assemblies, were afraid to claim for the congress a power which was denied to the British parliament. The provincial assemblies and congresses possessed more power and exerted more vigour than the general congress, which they always preceded in demonstrations of resistance and approaches to independence.

skilful officers of Europe. In all the provinces the enlistment of troops was promoted by the operation of the late acts of parliament which deprived many of the inhabitants of America of their usual employments and means of subsistence. C H A P.
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The nomination of a commander-in-chief of all the American forces was the next, and not the least important measure which demanded from the congress the united exercise of its wisdom and authority. Its choice (and never was choice more happily directed) fell upon George Washington, whom previous scenes have already introduced to our acquaintance,¹ and whose services, especially in Braddock's campaign, had been always the more proudly appreciated by his countrymen, from the flattering contrast which they suggested between British rashness and misconduct, and American skilfulness, foresight, and energy. The deputies of the New England states, less acquainted with the achievements and character of Washington than the people of the southern provinces, and warmly admiring their own officers, would willingly have conferred this high dignity upon one of them; and Putnam, Ward, and several others were named as candidates: but the partizans of these officers, perceiving that Washington possessed a majority of suffrages, and that his was the name the most widely spread abroad in America, forbore a vain opposition, and promoted the public confidence by uniting to render the election unanimous.² Of the other officers who had been proposed, some,³ though inhabitants, were not natives of America; and some had distinguished themselves by undisguised and headlong zeal for American independence. None of them possessed the ample fortune of Washington, who, in addition to this advantage and to the claim arising from previous services, was a native American; and though a firm friend of American liberty, yet moderate in his relative views and language, and believed still to cherish the hope or at least the wish of reconciliation with the parent state. In conferring the supreme command on him, the partizans of conciliation meant to promote a friend, and the partizans of independence hoped to gain one. Nature and fortune had singularly combined to adapt and to designate this individual for

elects a
commander-in-
chief—

George
Washington.

¹ *Ante*, Book X. chaps. iii. and iv.

² June 15.

³ Gates and Lee, for example.

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the distinguished situations which he now and afterwards attained, and the arduous duties which they involved. A long struggle to defend the frontiers of Virginia against continual incursions of the French and Indians:—the command of a clumsy, ill-organized provincial militia, prouder of being free citizens than effective soldiers, and among whom he had to introduce and establish the restraints of discipline:—obliged to superintend every department of the service; to execute as well as order, to negotiate, conciliate, project, command, and endure:—there could not have been a better preparatory education for the office of commander-in-chief of the motley, ardent, and untrained levies that constituted at present the army of America. His previous functions and exertions, arduous rather than splendid, had excited respect without envy; and, combined with the influence of his character and manners, had qualified him to exercise command and prepared his countrymen to brook his ascendancy. The language and deportment of this truly great man were singularly exempt from every strain of irregular vehemence and every symptom of indeliberate thought; disclosing an even tenor of steadfast propriety, an austere but graceful simplicity, sound considerate sense and prudence, the gravity of a profound understanding and habitual reflection, and the tranquil grandeur of an elevated soul. Of this moral superiority, as of all human virtue, part was the fruit of wise discipline and generous self-control; for Washington was naturally passionate and irritable, and had increased the vigour and authority of every better quality of his mind by the conquest and subjection of those rebellious elements of its composition. Calm, modest, and reserved, yet dignified, intrepid, inflexibly firm, and persevering; just, yet merciful and humane; frugal and calculating, yet disinterested; circumspect, yet enterprising; serious, virtuous, consistent, temperate, and sincere,—his moral portraiture displays a blended variety of excellence, in which it is difficult to assign a predominant lustre to any particular grace, except perhaps a grave majestic composure. Ever superior to fortune, he enjoyed her smiles with moderation, endured her frowns with serenity, and showed himself alike in victory forbearing, and in defeat undaunted. No danger

or difficulty could disturb his equanimity, and no disaster exhaust his resources or dishearten his confidence. Perhaps there never was another man whose personal character and conduct exercised an influence so powerful and so beneficial on the destiny of a great nation.¹ That he was childless, was, considering his situation, a fortunate circumstance, as it obstructed the jealousies that might have impaired the public confidence, and facilitated the disinterested purpose of declining all emolument for his services,—a purpose declared in the modest yet vigorous speech in which he accepted the commission now conferred on him by his colleagues in congress. This assembly assured him that they would support and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes; and, with a studied conformity to the language of the Roman senate in seasons of public danger, instructed him, in the discharge of the great trust he had received, to make it his especial care *that the liberties of America receive no detriment*. Departing to assume the exercise of his function, Washington found on his arrival in Massachusetts that the British army in two divisions, had entrenched itself on Bunker's Hill and Dorchester Neck adjoining to Boston, where they were still blockaded by the American forces who occupied both sides of the river

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1775.

July 2.

1 “ Can tyrants but by tyrants conquered be,
And freedom find no champion and no child,
Such as Columbia saw arise when she
Sprung forth a Pallas, arm'd and undefiled ?
Or must such minds be nourished in the wild,
Deep in the unpruned forest, 'midst the roar
Of cataracts, where nursing nature smiled
On infant Washington ? Has earth no more
Such seeds within her breast, or Europe no such shore ? ”

LORD BYRON.

“ Washington,” said General Lee (and all America re-echoed the declaration) “ was ever the first in peace, the first in war, the first in the hearts of his countrymen.”

There has recently been given to the world the following sketch of Washington's character by the pen of one of his most illustrious friends :—“ His judgment was slow in operation, being little aided by invention or imagination, but sure in conclusion. Hence the common remark of his officers of the advantage he derived from councils of war, where, hearing all suggestions, he selected whatever was best : and certainly no general ever planned his battles more judiciously. His integrity was the most pure, his justice the most inflexible I have ever known. His temper was naturally irritable and high-toned : but reflexion and resolution had obtained a firm and habitual ascendancy over it. If ever, however, it broke its bounds, he was most tremendous in his wrath.” Jefferson's Memoirs.

BOOK Charles. About two months afterwards, General Gage em-
 XI. barked for England, and the command of the British forces
 1775. devolved on Sir William Howe.¹

The partizans of the American cause at New York had already regained their ascendancy in the councils of this province, which had sent representatives to the present congress and desired to receive advice relative to the conduct that should be pursued on the arrival of an additional body of British troops which was daily expected at the provincial metropolis. The congress recommended that the troops should be permitted to remain in the barracks at New York, but not to construct fortifications, or assume a position that would enable them to intercept the intercourse between the city and the country: that as long as the soldiers demeaned themselves peaceably, they should be treated with civility; but that the inhabitants should be ready to repel force by force. The British ministers entertained a high opinion of the address and abilities of Tryon the governor of this province, and had formed expectations of his services with which his conduct was very far from corresponding. Struck with alarm at a resolution of the continental congress which recommended to all the provincial assemblies and committees the arrest of *suspected persons* of whatever rank or station, he hastily fled from New York, and took shelter on board of a British ship of war. This congress first applied to its constituents the title of *The Twelve Confederate Colonies*; a numeration however, which they were soon agreeably invited to alter: for, on the 20th of July, a day which they had solemnized by the appointment of a fast throughout America, they received intelligence that Georgia had now acceded to the general union and elected deputies to congress. The cause of American liberty had been actively espoused in this province, from the very commencement of the controversy with Britain, by a small but increasing party of which the principal leader was Noble Wimberly Jones, a physician who

July 20.

¹ It has been said that this command was first offered to General Oglethorpe, rather in compliment to his seniority in the British Army List, than with the expectation of his accepting it; that he actually, and to the surprise of the British ministers, signified his willingness to accept the proffered command; but that, instead of the armaments which they were willing to furnish, he demanded powers of concession and conciliation which they refused to confer. Ramsay's Amer. Rev.

had accompanied Oglethorpe in his first voyage from England, and distinguished himself by a warm and determined opposition to the Stamp Act. Recent proof had been afforded to the American people of the inclination of the Georgians in favour of the common cause. Captain Maitland having arrived at a Georgian port from London with a cargo of gunpowder, the people boarded his vessel and took the powder into their own possession. The congress, now representing *the thirteen* states of North America, resolved to maintain a body of forces not exceeding five thousand in number within the province of New York : and having established a post-office to extend from Falmouth in New England to Savannah in Georgia, unanimously appointed Franklin the postmaster-general. This eminent philosopher and politician, divided between his attachment to American liberty and his desire of preserving the integrity of the British empire, was much occupied at present in composing alternately plans of reconciliation with Britain, and of permanent union and confederation between the states of America.

The national congress having taken measures for the establishment of hospitals calculated for the reception of twenty thousand sick or wounded men, adjourned for a month. On their re-assembling, the principal subject of their deliberations was the expediency of an invasion of Canada for the purpose of anticipating the expected attack of a British force from that quarter. To the issue of these deliberations we shall subsequently advert. During this session Peyton Randolph president of the congress, suddenly died ; and John Hancock was elected his successor. In one instance the members of this congress appear to have over-estimated, or at least to have themselves outstripped the general pace of sentiment and opinion in America. They composed and published a plan of federal association (similar to that which was ultimately adopted) between all the provinces, by which a permanent congress was to be established and vested with power to administer the general defence and regulate all financial operations and other matters appertaining to this function *till* a happy reconciliation with Britain should be effected. This suggestion, whether premature or not (for it was perhaps intended to familiarize the minds of men with a prospect from which they might be

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expected at first to recoil), excited a general demur and hesitation throughout America; but only in North Carolina did it meet with a distinct and positive rejection. The provincial assemblies were reluctant to part with so much power as it was proposed to confer on the general congress; and many persons shrunk in temporary panic from a measure which they justly regarded as destructive of all hope and chance of pacific accommodation with Britain. With this exception, the proceedings of the present congress, even more than those of the former, were the theme of grateful applause throughout the American states, who imitated its language, and though reluctant to invest it with legislative authority, yet willingly gave the force of laws to its counsels and recommendations. The convention of South Carolina, in an address to Lord William Campbell the new governor¹ of this province, declared, as the congress had done, that they adhered to the British crown though they took arms against British tyranny. Some of the leading patriots in the province, suspecting that the governor was fomenting a conspiracy of the royalists against the cause of America, employed M'Donald a captain in the provincial militia, to discover the governor's policy by feigning to share his sentiments. Lord William rashly avowed the reality and disclosed the particulars of the intrigue which he had been conducting; but soon perceiving the snare into which he had fallen, and learning that some persons had proposed to arrest him, he fled from Charleston; and as a last resource endeavoured (not unsuccessfully) by insidious addresses to the remains of the unfortunate party called *Regulators* in North Carolina to recruit the force of the royalists and rekindle the embers of civil war. The convention of Virginia declared *before God and the world* that they bore true faith to the king, and would disband their forces whenever the liberties of America were restored,—as most certainly they did,—though not till after Britain had acknowledged the independence of America. In this province the march of the revolution was accelerated by the intemperate measures of Lord Dunmore the governor. Having by a sud-

Transac-
tions in
Virginia.

¹ The frequent changes of royal governors at this epoch detracted much from the reputation of the British cabinet for firm, consistent, deliberate purpose.

den and clandestine operation removed the public stores during the night from Williamsburg on board of armed vessels, and finding his conduct sharply arraigned by the provincial convention, he reprobated the proceedings of this body in a proclamation which concluded with the usual formula of "God save the King." They replied to him by a proclamation which concluded with "God save the liberties of America;" and Patrick Henry marched against him at the head of a strong detachment of the provincial militia. Lord Dunmore was obliged to procure a respite from the approaching danger by granting a bill of exchange for the pecuniary value of the stores which had been removed; but soon again involving himself by his violence in a quarrel (from which the utmost prudence could hardly have kept him free) with the popular party, he fled hastily from Williamsburg, took refuge on board the Fowey man of war, and thus practically abdicated his functions,—an example which, greatly to their own discredit, and unhappily for the interest of the principles which they espoused, was followed by several others of the royal governors of American provinces. The Virginian assembly invited their fugitive governor to return, which he refused to do unless they would previously signify their acceptance of Lord North's *conciliatory proposition*. The assembly replied by an address (composed by Thomas Jefferson) which announced a firm and dignified rejection of this requisition, and concluded with an "appeal to the even-handed justice of that Being who doth no wrong, earnestly beseeching Him to illuminate the counsels and prosper the endeavours of those to whom America had confided her hopes, that, through their wise direction, we may again see re-united the blessings of liberty and prosperity, and the most perfect harmony with Great Britain." In imitation of the measure recommended by the general congress to Massachusetts, a provisional government was now established in Virginia. Lord Dunmore however, still continued to hover about and menace the coasts of the province, and by proclamations invited the inhabitants of tory principles to make head against *the rebels*, and negro slaves to gain their freedom by espousing the cause of the king.¹ Landing at Norfolk

Oct. 15.

¹ M'Adam, the celebrated improver of roads, who was in America at this time, assured me that the negro slaves in general were attached to monarchical and inimi-

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with a party of these adherents, he destroyed or carried away a considerable quantity of ordnance. By other attacks of a similar description he ravaged many parts of the province which Britain had confided to his superintending care, and excited additional rage and hatred against the authority which he professed to represent and administer.

Wentworth the governor of New Hampshire, alarmed at the spread of revolutionary sentiments in this province, retired from his post; and thus accelerated the advance of the revolution by enabling or compelling the partizans of liberty openly to assume without appearing to usurp the administration of the supreme executive power which he had vacated. Martin the Governor of North Carolina, from real or affected apprehension for his own safety, caused his house to be surrounded with cannon, of which several pieces were seized and carried off by the people. Alarmed at the outrage which his own preparation had provoked, Martin took refuge in Fort Johnson on the river of Cape Fear, where he endeavoured to rally around him a number of Scottish emigrants who regarded with aversion a final rupture with Britain, and to excite insurrection among the negro slaves of the colonists: but he was forced to evacuate his strong hold and to fly from the province by the approach of a body of provincial troops conducted by Colonel Ashe, who had abandoned the service of the British king and espoused the cause of the American people. The spirit of resistance which had already been kindled in the southern provinces, was chafed to the highest pitch of vindictive exasperation, by the insidious addresses of Martin, Lord Dunmore, and other British functionaries to the negro slaves in America. This influence was doubtless experienced in Maryland, where a popular congress had already assumed the functions of the provincial assembly; and where the planters found no inconsistency or contradiction between their claims as freemen and their possessions as slave-owners. A remarkable activity of martial preparation was exerted in this province: the principal inhabitants set the example of arming

cal to republican power. In the years 1778 and 1779, both Georgia and South Carolina, but especially the latter province, sustained dreadful calamities from the vindictive fury of their negro slaves, of whom great numbers revolted against their masters on the first approach of a British army.

themselves ; and the provincial congress, besides levying and expending large sums of money for the purchase of ammunition, commanded every citizen to provide himself with arms, under pain of being proclaimed an enemy to his country. Corresponding movements and proceedings occurred in the neighbouring province of Delaware. Franklin the Governor of New Jersey, perceiving that his authority was merely nominal, contented himself with expressing to the provincial assembly the regret with which he beheld the existing troubles and heard the wishes that were breathed for American independence : for his own personal security, he declared that he desired no better safeguard than the good faith of the people of New Jersey. The assembly in answer protested to him that he was mistaken in supposing the Americans to be aiming at national independence ; that he might dismiss all doubt and inquietude with regard to his own safety ; that they could not compose the existing troubles ; and, regretting them, must still more keenly regret the unjust and tyrannical acts of parliament from which they had arisen. But not long after, Governor Franklin persisting in a vain adherence to the cause of British prerogative, was deposed and imprisoned by the people of New Jersey. In all the states of North America before the close of the present year, the sceptre had substantially departed from Great Britain ; and not only a vast preponderance of numbers, but the effectual authority, and in many parts the open and exclusive administration of civil power belonged to the partizans of American liberty and resistance. In Georgia, though a convention representing the great majority of the people, had signified their adherence to the American cause and the continental congress, yet their ascendancy was disputed and their efficiency controlled by the number of royalists inhabiting the province, and by the presence of a detachment of British troops who were quartered in it. These troops, after a bloody combat, succeeded in recapturing the fort of Savannah, which had been occupied by a party of the insurgents : but this advantage was counterbalanced by the arrival of an American regiment which the congress embodied and despatched for the protection of liberty in Georgia.

The system of predatory and vindictive hostility which we

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have seen Lord Dunmore embrace, was pursued by many of the British commanders, in a manner little creditable to the wisdom of their views, or the generosity of their sentiments. Infatuated with tyrannical insolence, they provoked the Americans by menace and contumely, and rendered them desperate by a barbarous cruelty and devastation. Wallace a captain in the British navy, whose vessel had been appointed to cruise along the coasts of Connecticut and Rhode Island, judged himself warranted by the present posture of affairs to launch indiscriminate havoc on the inhabitants of America; and accordingly ravaged and destroyed every village and hamlet that his guns could reach. The province of Massachusetts, on receiving this intelligence, promptly despatched a military force under the command of General Lee, to the assistance of their allies: and the assembly of Rhode Island decreed the pains of death and confiscation of goods on all who should even hold the slightest correspondence with the forces of the British king. Of this decree, a practical enforcement was straightway administered by an act of the same assembly confiscating the various estates (and among others an estate in Rhode Island belonging to Hutchinson the ex-governor of Massachusetts) of which the owners were declared by the act to be traitors to the liberty of America. In compliance with a resolve of the provincial congress of Massachusetts, that tories should not be allowed to convey their effects out of this province, the inhabitants of Falmouth had obstructed the loading of a ship which had been engaged to carry masts to Great Britain. In addition to this paltry cause of offence, Mowat the commander of a British sloop of war, who had frequently been entertained at Falmouth with the most friendly hospitality, was seized for a few minutes by some individuals who were infuriated by the recent news of the battle of Bunker's Hill. He was instantly released by the interposition of the principal inhabitants: but, incensed at the affront, he presented a complaint to the British Admiral Greaves who was too easily persuaded to entrust him with a number of armed vessels, with which he arrived at the devoted town on the 17th of October. Next day, he opened a heavy cannonade and bombardment, which, with the aid of a party sent on shore under cover of the naval guns, reduced

the greater part of the town to ashes. An hundred and thirty nine dwelling houses and two hundred and seventy eight warehouses were destroyed on this occasion.¹ Nothing could be more impolitic on the part of Britain than such a system of warfare, of which the indiscriminate havoc involved every party, hostile, neutral, or friendly, in one common destruction. The men whom these ravages deprived of home and employment, were constrained to seek a refuge in the American camp; and were provoked to hostility or confirmed in it by resentment against the British, and by gratitude to their own countrymen by whom their families were sheltered and supported. The British troops, in conformity with the language of their government, long continued to regard the Americans more as *rebels*² whom they were sent to chastise, than as legitimate belligerents entitled to claim the courtesies of civilized war—a consideration more fitted to enhance the cruelty than to promote the efficacy of their own warfare. In a contest with America, the main advantage which Britain possessed, was the superior discipline of her troops: but this advantage was diminished by the indulgence of a barbarous cruelty which invariably corrupts the vigour of discipline; and it was balanced by the conviction inevitably impressed on the British officers and soldiers, that their triumph would be attended with little glory and their defeat with deep disgrace. The Americans, on the contrary, were prepared to rush into the contest with all the energy inspired by an indignant detestation of the oppression which they hoped to repel, and a firm and ani-

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1775. Gordon. Wirt. Burk. Bradford. Ramsay. Holmes. Pitkin. Dwight. Botta. Some American politicians showed a disposition to retaliate the devastations committed by the British troops. There is reason to believe that it was by the instigation, or at least with the encouragement of Silas Deane the American envoy to France, that an English vagabond named Hill attempted to set fire to the British dockyards at Bristol and Portsmouth. On the trial (in 1777) of Hill, who was hanged for this offence, the counsel for the crown thus vainly and foolishly expressed himself:—"I wish Mr. Silas Deane were here. A time may come, perhaps, when he and Dr. Franklin will be here." And again:—"Silas Deane is not here yet: he will be hanged in due time." Howell's State Trials.

² Some of the British commanders, with ostentatious insult, applied this epithet to the Americans, even at the time when a prudent regard to their own safety imperiously withheld them from inflicting the treatment corresponding to it. In August, 1775, General Gage, writing to Washington, who had taxed him with cruelty to the American prisoners in Boston, strongly denied the charge, and plumed himself on his kind and humane treatment of men whom at the same time he characterized as "*rebels* whose lives by the laws of the land are destined to the *cord*." Bradford.

B O O K mating conviction of the justice, advantage, and glory of the
 XI. objects which they hoped to obtain.

1775. The Massachusetts assembly having passed an act for the equipment of armed vessels, and for granting letters of marque and reprisal against the shipping of Britain, a privateer commanded by Captain Manby of Marble-head was quickly
 Nov. 29. put to sea, and soon after captured a brig from Woolwich containing a great quantity of military stores and ammunition, and almost in immediate sequence to this achievement, a number of vessels from London, Glasgow, and Liverpool with cargoes destined for the use of the British forces. A court of admiralty was formed by the provincial authorities; and by its sentence, the prizes were solemnly condemned. South Carolina was early and active in martial preparation: but the whole quantity of powder in the province did not exceed three thousand pounds. The occasion seeming to require extraordinary exertions for obtaining an ample supply of this essential commodity, a committee of twelve persons, authorized by the provincial assembly, sailed from Charleston for East Florida (which retained its adherence to the British government) and boarding by surprise a British vessel near St. Augustine, brought off fifteen thousand pounds of powder.¹ Before the close of the year, the continental congress gave orders for building thirteen vessels of war.

The British government at this crisis betrayed no symptom of relaxation in its purpose to effect by force the submission of the American people. The king refused even to receive the second petition of the congress, and at the opening of parliament in October, declared that the colonists were in a state of actual revolt; and that the purpose of their rebellion was to establish an independent empire. He added that to defeat this object, the most vigorous and decisive measures were necessary; and that he had increased all his forces, and also engaged the aid of a body of Hessians and other German stipendiary troops. An application which this monarch had previously addressed to the states-general of Holland for

¹ Ebenezer Platt, one of the persons who achieved this exploit, having fallen soon after into the hands of the British forces, was sent to England, where the government preferred a charge of high treason against him. He was imprisoned on this charge, but never brought to trial. Ann. Reg. for 1777.

leave to engage in his service some battalions of Scottish ad-
 venturers who were enrolled under the banners of the Dutch
 republic, had met with a positive refusal. Although the em-
 ployment of German mercenaries in a quarrel between the
 king of Britain and his own subjects, was severely censured
 by the wiser and more liberal of the British politicians, the
 views and policy of the court obtained the acquiescence of
 large majorities in both of the legislative chambers. In the
 close of the year, an act of parliament was passed, autho-
 rizing the confiscation of all American ships and cargoes, and
 of all the vessels of other countries engaged in trading with
 the American ports. One of the opponents of this measure
 in the House of Commons remarked that as the indiscrimi-
 nate rapine announced by the statute would oblige even the
 most submissively disposed of the Americans to unite with
 their countrymen in resistance, it ought to receive the title of
 "An act for more effectually carrying into execution the re-
 solves of congress." By a clause in this act, which was much
 and justly reprobated, the commanders of British ships of
 war were empowered to seize the crews of all American vessels
 whatever, and besides confiscating their property, compel
 them to take arms against their countrymen under pain of
 being treated as mutineers. It was in vain that the wisdom
 and genius of Lord Chatham, Charles Fox, Edmund Burke,
 and other great statesmen, were exerted to inspire their coun-
 trymen with milder, juster, and more generous councils.
 The king, together with the great body of the parliament and
 nation,¹ were bent upon war. Lord Mansfield the chief
 justice of England, in vindicating the ministerial policy, de-
 clared in the House of Lords that it was now too late to en-
 tertain or discuss the questions of original right and wrong—
 that the nation was engaged in war and must disregard every
 object but victory, and that "the justice of the cause must
 give way to our present situation." The only other powers
 in Europe that showed any inclination to second the policy of
 the British government were the kings of Denmark and Por-
 tugal; the former of whom this year issued an edict prohi-
 biting his subjects from trading with the Americans. By the

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¹ See Note XVII. at the end of the volume.

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 XI. year a proclamation declaring that the cause of the British
 1755. king was the common cause of all sovereign princes; and prohibiting his subjects from holding any intercourse whatever with the Americans, and the ships and natives of America from presuming to enter his dominions.

American
 invasion of
 Canada.

An enterprise, meanwhile, deeply affecting the relative interests of Britain and America and materially advancing their quarrel, had been embraced by the American congress, and pushed into full and active operation by the vigour and sagacity of Washington. The movements of Sir Guy Carleton and the British troops whom he commanded in Canada, led the American congress to anticipate from this quarter a formidable invasion of their north-western frontier. Of the counter expeditions into Canada which were projected by the congress and executed by their forces, a detailed account would be foreign to the purpose of this work; of which the concluding portion regards as its main object, the history of the international quarrel, and views the military operations as (comparatively) unimportant, except in so far as they displayed, inspired, or confirmed in the Americans, the purpose of final and absolute revolt.¹ The conduct of the enterprise to which we shall now briefly advert, was committed to Generals Schuyler and Montgomery, of whom the first was soon obliged by bad health to retire from active service. Montgomery commenced the siege of St. John's, and compelled it to surrender, after a bloody action in which he defeated a British force that was marching for its relief. During the siege, Ethan Allen who had distinguished himself by the surprise of Ticonderoga, fell into the hands of a party of the enemy's troops; and, instead of being treated as a prisoner of war, was sent to England loaded with irons as a traitor. Montgomery advancing from St. John's, took unresisted possession of Montreal, from which Sir Guy Carleton by a hasty

¹ I fully coincide with the two illustrious Americans to whom the following judgment is ascribed:—"Mr. Jefferson preferred Botta's Italian History of the American Revolution to any that had yet appeared; remarking, however, the inaccuracy of the speeches."—"Mr. John Adams said, that of all the speeches made in congress from 1774 to 1777, inclusive of both years, not one sentence remains, except a few periods of Dr. Witherspoon printed in his Works." Hall's Travels in Canada, &c. This author, whom I have already had occasion to cite, must not be confounded with the later American traveller, Captain Basil Hall.

flight and in disguised apparel, with difficulty escaped to Quebec. Washington had previously detached against this place a force commanded by Arnold, which after enduring the most dreadful hardships and exerting the most admirable fortitude and energy, suddenly emerged from the depths of an unexplored wilderness and struck the city and its defenders with astonishment and consternation. But arrested at this critical moment by the difficulty of procuring boats with which to cross the St. Lawrence, Arnold and his followers saw the opportunity which they had purchased so dearly, of a successful effort of surprise, slip out of their hands. The English and Canadian inhabitants of the place, though previously discontented and at variance, now united for the common defence of their respective possessions which were staked on the stability of the existing government. Montgomery arriving from Montreal in the beginning of December, and uniting his forces with those of Arnold, was slain in a desperate and ineffectual assault upon Quebec. In this bloody action, and in every circumstance of the campaign which afforded scope to the display of energy and fortitude, no officer in the American army was more conspicuous than Colonel Morgan, who now by his heroic constancy and brilliant valour laid the foundation of a fame which every year of his country's danger and glory contributed to enlarge. General Wayne, hitherto known to his countrymen only as a supporter of the principles of liberty in the Pennsylvanian assembly, also commenced with much honour in this campaign a career that conducted him to the highest military renown. Montgomery the commander-in-chief whose fall we have remarked, was a native of Ireland, and, after serving with the British army during the last war in America, had married and established himself in the state of New York, and transferred his patriotic attachments to the new scene of his residence and domestic affections. His loss was deeply deplored, and his merits, as a gallant and experienced officer and generous friend of liberty were enthusiastically commemorated in all the American states. Even the partizans of Britain admired his character while they blamed his conduct; and Lord North in alluding to him in the British House of Commons, exclaimed, "Curse on his virtues! for they have undone his country." Arnold, upon

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whom the command of the invading forces now devolved, contrived through the whole winter to maintain the blockade of Quebec: and it was not till the arrival of the following year and of strong reinforcements to the British army from Europe, that he and his American troops, successively abandoning post after post, were finally compelled to evacuate Canada.¹ Among all the scenes of war to which the quarrel between Britain and America gave rise, this expedition was honourably distinguished both by the intrepid valour and endurance of the Americans, and (with the exception of the indignities inflicted on Allen) by the generous concern and respect for each other, mutually demonstrated by the belligerent forces. The Americans warmly celebrated the merits of Carleton as a magnanimous foe, and ascribed to his undisguised abhorrence of the employment of Indian auxiliaries, the policy which, unfortunately for Britain, prompted her ministers to divest him of his command and preferably entrust it to General Burgoyne.² The Canadian expedition of the Americans and its result, misrepresented by the folly and insolence of Burgoyne, induced the British cabinet to entertain a very erroneous view of the importance and facility of hostile operations in this quarter; and in the sequel exerted a very injurious influence on its military policy,—which, instead of directing the British forces to act with combined vigour upon one point, divided them into two armies of which the operations were totally unconnected, and of which the one was appointed to invade America in front from the sea coast, while the other descending from Canada by the lakes, attempted from the rear to penetrate into the interior of the revolted provinces.

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1775 and for 1776. Gordon. Ramsay. Holmes. Williams' Hist. of Vermont. Pitkin. This last cited work, though invaluable from the access to novel and important American documents which its writer has enjoyed, is rendered extremely perplexing to ordinary readers by its negligent composition and disregard of chronological arrangement.

² Carleton learned from his own feelings and understanding, what Burgoyne ascertained by a lamentable experience, that the vindictive and ungovernable fury of the Indians was more fitted to provoke rage and despair, than to inspire fear or recommend submission.

CHAPTER V.

Popular feeling and public policy in America.—American negotiations with France.
 —La Fayette.—Condition of the American Army.—Operations of Washington.
 —Retreat of the British Army from Boston.—Hostilities in South Carolina.—
 The Americans declare their commerce free.—Conduct of the American Quakers.
 — Proceedings in Congress — Declaration of American Independence. —
 Conclusion.

OUR historical progress has at length conducted us to the CHAP. V.
 last year, during any part of which even the shadowy phan-
 tom of political union subsisted between Britain and the 1776.
 provinces of North America. For more than ten years the
 parent state had by a series of most impolitic measures pro-
 longed a quarrel of constantly augmenting bitterness with her
 colonies, and provoked them to demonstrate a more and more
 determined resistance to her authority. Since the refusal of
 the Americans to submit to the Stamp Act in 1765, the temper
 and deportment of both parties disclosed a reciprocal and
 progressive hostility : and every year had enlarged the nume-
 rical force of the partizans of America, confirmed their resolu-
 tion, and extended the compass of their democratic thought
 and purpose. In this country a whole generation had grown
 up from youth to manhood since the controversy began.
 Their education during this period had not inculcated the
 respect that was formerly entertained for the parent state;
 and with the fearless generous spirit of youth they warmly
 embraced the interests of liberty, and hailed the prospect of
 their country's independence.¹ Nor was the general ardour

Popular
feeling and
public po-
licy in
America.

¹ Almost all the young men in America were ardent patriots. At the commence-
 ment of the war, the college of New Jersey was deserted by many of its students,
 who rushed to join the ranks of the American army. No small surprise and ad-
 miration was excited in America by the discovery that some of the ablest and most
 eloquent compositions in support of liberty that were published in the year 1774,
 were the productions of Alexander Hamilton a student at New York college, only

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 1776. for liberty confined to the more youthful inhabitants, or even to the stronger sex in America: it glowed in the gentle bosoms of women, and triumphed over the feebleness and timidity of age. The female inhabitants of the county of Bristol in Massachusetts raised and equipped a regiment at their own expense. The oldest German colonists at Philadelphia formed themselves into an armed *company of veterans*; and in the election of their officers gave the command to a man nearly an hundred years of age. While the Americans of British descent were transported with indignation by the intelligence that Britain had drawn a mercenary host from Germany to invade them, the colonists of German origin experienced no distraction of sentiment from this prospect: their zealous attachment to the adopted country where they had found liberty and happiness, was not abated by the hostility with which it was menaced from the instruments of that tyranny whence they themselves had originally sought a refuge in America. This country at present exhibited the singular spectacle of a people professing allegiance to a distant monarch, whose commands they had for ten years openly disobeyed; zealously adhering to a domestic government which that monarch denounced as a traitorous usurpation; and maintaining an army avowedly raised to fight his troops, already engaged in battle with them, and latterly employed in the invasion of his territories. A state of things so heterogencous could not subsist much longer; and notwithstanding the exertions that were made to bridle the impetuosity of the partizans of independence, this great consummation was rapidly maturing, and became with more certainty from day to day the substantial though unacknowledged purpose of the Americans. Nay its advancement was promoted even by the exertions of the moderate and temporizing politicians, and the concessions which they obtained from the more ardent party of their countrymen. *Professions* of loyalty to the king induced the timid and doubtful to acquiesce in *measures* which practically realized independence, and rendered a speedy and open declaration of it inevitable. An attitude was gradually assumed, maintained,

seventeen years of age. This young man in the present year entered the American army as an officer of artillery. He rose to the rank of general, and was afterwards highly distinguished as a soldier, a statesman, and a political writer.

and improved, from which it was impossible to retreat without certain ruin, or to advance without the assertion of national independence. Various symptoms had of late betokened the approaching birth of this event. Paine and other popular writers, in works which were extensively read and relished, attacked the principle of regal government with energetic reprobation and ingenious ridicule; and animated the Americans to declare themselves an independent people,—supporting the legitimacy and exalting the dignity of this claim by every consideration that could prove it to their reason or wed it to their desire. In electing members to the second congress, the people of Maryland expressly charged their delegates not to consent to the assumption of independence *unless* they found a majority of the congress convinced of the expediency of that measure and determined to embrace it. The inhabitants of the county of Mecklenburgh in North Carolina, on learning the affair of Lexington, embraced and published a violent resolution, declaring themselves independent and all political connexion with Britain dissolved. The project of independence was discussed in every province and assembly, and daily gained partizans. Drayton, whom the assembly of South Carolina had now appointed chief justice of this province, in a charge delivered by him to a grand jury, thus expressed himself:—"The Almighty created America to be independent of Great Britain: let us beware of the impiety of being backward to act as instruments in the Almighty hand now extended to accomplish his purpose." All these symptoms of public feeling were watched with interest and cherished with policy by the prevailing party in the national congress, which without ever expressly alluding to independence, except in professions that they were not aiming at it and would fain avoid it, only waited a fit juncture for asserting this pretension with the greatest possible efficacy. Before taking so critical a step, it highly imported them to assure themselves with extraordinary wariness and care of finding a firm and stable footing in the perilous path which it would pledge them to tread.

Anticipating the approaching rupture, and desirous to fortify their country by every possible means against the shock of a terrible and inevitable conflict, the American congress had

BOOK for some time directed their attention to the acquisition of
 XI. foreign succour. In the month of November of the preceding
 1776. year, a committee consisting of Franklin, Jay, Dickinson, Harrison, and Johnson, was appointed for the purpose of holding a secret correspondence with the friends of America in Great Britain, Ireland, *and other parts of the world*. The real object of this committee was to sound the views, inclinations, and purposes of the principal powers of Europe, and particularly of France and Spain, with respect to the American controversy; and if possible obtain from them assistance or a pledge of it in a war for American independence. The requisite negotiations commenced immediately after by a correspondence between Franklin and a Frenchman of his acquaintance named Dumas who resided in Holland and was known to be friendly to the American cause: and they were attended with such promising results, that in the spring of the present year Silas Deane, one of the deputies to congress from Connecticut, was secretly despatched by the committee as political agent for America to the court of France,—where he continued to discharge this important function till the exercise of it was openly acknowledged, and confided to worthier hands by the mission of Franklin and Arthur Lee to Paris after the declaration of independence.

American
 negotia-
 tions with
 France.

The contagious influence of revolutionary movements in behalf of liberty, appears to have been very little understood or regarded by the cabinets of Europe at this period. It required indeed a greater diffusion of knowledge than yet existed, together with an efficacious machinery for the circulation of sentiment and opinion (subsequently afforded by the maturity of the *periodical press*) in order fully to develope that important principle of social life, which has no perceptible existence in a barbarous and illiterate age. All the commercial states of Europe, as we have already frequently remarked, were interested in the destruction of the British monopoly of American commerce; and of late they had begun more highly to appreciate by partially obtaining the advantage of that catastrophe. In proportion as the breach between Great Britain and America had been widened, the contraband trade between America and those states had increased; and it was now yielding to them an extent of profit which they ardently

desired to retain, and which only a final disruption of the British colonies from their parent state could render legitimate and permanently secure. The friendly interest in the cause and fortune of America, thus derived from motives of commercial gain, was aided in France both by the strong predilection for liberty that had been recently awakened in this country, and by national antipathy against Great Britain. With improvident acquiescence or vindictive satisfaction, the French government beheld the rise and gradual spread among its people of a passionate zeal for American liberty, which it ascribed to mercantile competition and national rivalry; and encouraged, or at least permitted a number of French officers and engineers to indulge their enmity to Britain or their thirst for martial enterprise, by accepting commissions which were readily tendered to them by Deane in the American army. The attraction to this confluence of troubled waters, whether martial or commercial, national or philanthropic, though chiefly experienced in France, was not confined to this country. German officers (some of whom had been trained to the art of war in the armies of Frederick the Second of Prussia) hastened across the Atlantic to exert their skill and talents in defence of American liberty: Polish noblemen¹ were among the earliest and bravest of its champions; and the name of Kosciusko acquired in America a part of its claims on the gratitude and admiration of mankind.

Vergennes the French minister encouraged Deane to expect all but *open* assistance in the present posture of affairs: and a pretended commercial establishment was soon after formed in Holland, through which military stores and other succours, the gift of the French government, were transmitted in the guise of mercantile consignments to America. In the progress of the negotiations, the Americans endeavoured to interest the cupidity of France by proposing to her an advantageous commercial treaty and the re-conquest of Canada; and to awaken her pride by suggesting that now was the time

¹ Among these was Count Pulawski, who had been outlawed for his share in the desperate enterprise by which a few conspirators seized and carried off Stanislaus king of Poland, in the midst of his capital, in the year 1771. After a gallant career in America, he was mortally wounded in a conflict with the British troops in 1779. The Polish monarch, on receiving the intelligence of his death, is said to have exclaimed, "Pulawski! always brave, but always the enemy of kings."

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“to obtain satisfaction from Britain for the injuries received in the last war commenced by that nation in a manner contrary to the law of nations!” But surely the American politicians from whom this suggestion proceeded, must have been blinded by passion or duped by the excess of their own cunning, when they hoped (if they really could hope) to awaken the sympathy of France by reproaching England with the late war, and decrying those conquests which had inspired their own most ardent wishes and triumphant exultations. The French besides, had no longer any desire to re-obtain Canada; the possession of which by Britain, they judged likely to conduce to the more entire dependence of America on the power and friendship of France.¹ The utmost duplicity was practised by both the parties in this negotiation. When Lord Stormont the British ambassador at Paris, complained of the transmission, which he had discovered, of military stores to America from France, the French government flatly denied any participation in the affair, and even carried dissimulation so far as to throw its own agents into prison. And about two years after the present period, when the American congress was dissatisfied with the conduct of Silas Deane,—and Paine their secretary for foreign correspondence, had, in order to depreciate the vaunted services of that envoy, published a statement which showed that before the American Declaration of Independence, and before even Deane’s arrival in France, a promise of succour had been given by this power to America,—in consequence of a remonstrance from the French government, the congress consented to sacrifice its own integrity to the reputation of its ally, and published a denial of Paine’s statement, though it was unquestionably true.²

¹ Some of the members of congress were so far transported by passionate zeal beyond the bounds of sense and moderation, that they proposed to bestow on France what they would not now have yielded to Britain; by transferring to the French ports the same monopoly of American commerce which the British had hitherto enjoyed. Treaties framed in conformity with such passionate propositions would not have been durably binding or satisfactory. The counsels of the revolutionary government of America, though sometimes warped by passion, never evinced a lasting departure from the principles of sound policy. In 1778, an expedition for the conquest of Canada, suggested by D’Estaing and La Fayette, was opposed by Washington, and declined by the American congress.

² Pitkin. Franklin’s Private Correspondence. Botta. The congress shewed more regard to the principles of honour in its domestic than in its foreign policy. It withstood and counteracted the general but erroneous impression of the incapacity of Generals Schuyler and St. Clair, which the Americans derived from the unexpected

The court of France, stimulated by jealousy, ambition, and an insatiable spirit of intrigue, was willing to embarrass and weaken Great Britain, by fomenting the quarrel between her and America, but demurred to patronize American revolt and independence. It was the force of public opinion in France that ultimately overcame the scruples of the French court, and prevailed with it to espouse openly the cause of America. The most active, the most influential, and the most generous promoter and partizan of this cause in France, and indeed in Europe, was a young French officer, the Marquis de la Fayette. The circumstance¹ from which his connection with America originated, was curious and remarkable, and occurred in the commencement of the present year, when this illustrious friend of human liberty, then in the nineteenth year of his age, was in garrison with his regiment at the town of Metz. Here arrived, in the course of a continental tour which he was pursuing, the Duke of Gloucester brother of the king of Britain, who having contracted a marriage that was deemed unsuitable to his dignity, was discountenanced by his reigning brother and denied the privilege of presenting his duchess at court. The duke sought to cover his disgrace under the show of a conscientious opposition to the measures and policy of the British government, and vented his discontent in passionate declamations in favour of liberty and reprobation of arbitrary power. Having accepted an invitation to dine with the French officers at Metz, he launched after dinner, into an animated exposition of British tyranny, and of the gallant spirit of resistance which it had provoked in America ; and indulged his spurious zeal on this theme with such success, as to kindle in the breast of young La Fayette a purer and more generous fire, and awaken the first glimmering of that purpose which soon after broke forth with so much honour and glory in the enterprise by which he staked his life and fortune on the cause of American freedom. And thus the irritated pride and effervescent impatience of a discontented scion and ally of royalty, was able to rouse the zeal, dormant as yet from lack of knowledge and

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LaFayette.

surrender of Ticonderoga to Burgoyne in the year 1777 ; but instructed its foreign agents to propagate that impression in Europe as an antidote to the unfavourable prognostic that might be formed of American spirit and good fortune.

¹ Related to the author by La Fayette himself.

BOOK opportunity, of a champion as virtuous and heroic at least as
 XI. the world has ever produced, of the principles of democracy
 1776. and the just rights of men. So strange (was the remark of La Fayette himself fifty-three years after) are the concatenations of human affairs !¹

Condition
 of the
 American
 army.

We must now transfer our attention from Europe to America, and briefly survey the posture and conduct of the American forces which, encamped in Massachusetts, watched the motions and blockaded the position of Howe and the British army. Washington, on his arrival at the camp, had found (he acknowledged) the materials for a good army, but assembled, rather than combined, in a state of the crudest composition. The troops having been separately raised by the various provincial governments, no uniformity existed among the regiments. Animated by the spirit of that liberty for which they were preparing to fight, and unaccustomed to discipline, they neither felt the inclination nor appreciated the importance of subjection to military rules. Every one was more forward to advise and to command than to obey,—unaware that liberty, to be gained by battle, must be preceded by submission, nearly mechanical to the sternest restraint of absolute authority. In many of the regiments the officers had been elected by their troops, whose suffrages had too often been gained by a show of enthusiastic confidence which was mistaken for genius and valour, and of furious zeal for American liberty which not less erroneously was supposed the certain test of pure honour, generous virtue, and sound patriotism. These defects were counterbalanced by the ardent zeal and stubborn resolution of the troops, and the strong persuasion they cherished of the justice and glory of their country's cause. When the last speech of the British monarch to his parliament was circulated in the camp, it produced a violent burst of universal indignation, and was publicly burned by the soldiers with the strongest demonstrations of contempt and abhorrence. They expunged at the same time from their standards every emblem appro-

¹ “ La Fayette trouvait la cause des Americains juste et sacrée : l'affection qu'il lui portait était d'autant plus vive, qu' independamment de la candeur de son caractère, n'ayant encore que dix-neuf ans, il était dans l'âge où le bien paraît non seulement bon, mais beau, et où tous les sentimens deviennent des passions.” Botta. See Note XVIII. at the end of the volume.

priate to the British crown, and adopted a flag variegated with thirteen coloured stripes, in allusion to the number of the confederated provinces. The difficulty of establishing a due subordination in the American camp was greatly enhanced by the shortness of the terms for which the regiments had been enlisted, none of which were to endure for more than a few months. Nor was it long before Washington, in addition to his other embarrassments, made the alarming discovery that his troops laboured under a great deficiency of bayonets, and that all the powder in his possession was barely sufficient to furnish each man with nine cartridges.¹ By dint of great address, and with a magnanimous sacrifice of his own reputation to his country's interest, he succeeded in concealing these dangerous deficiencies both from the enemy, and from the general knowledge of the American people, some of whom, with bold absurdity and injustice, imputed to him a wilful forbearance to destroy the British forces, for the sake of prolonging his own importance at the head of the American army. Destitute of tents, a great portion of this army was lodged in scattered dwellings; a circumstance unfavourable equally to discipline and to promptitude of operation. There was no commissary-general; and consequently no systematic arrangement for obtaining provisions. A supply of clothes was rendered peculiarly difficult by the effect of the non-importation agreements. There was besides, a great lack of engineers, and a deficiency of tools for the construction of works. Washington, happily qualified to endure and overcome difficulties, promptly adopted and patiently pursued the most judicious and effectual means to organize the troops, to fit them for combined movements and active service, and to introduce and mature arrangements for securing a steady flow of the necessary supplies. Next to these measures, he judged the re-enlistment of the army the most interesting. To this essential object he had early solicited the attention of congress, who appointed a committee of its members to repair to the military head-quarters at Cambridge, in order to consult

¹ Shipments of ammunition and warlike stores were made about this time from Ireland to the North American states. Some of the parties concerned in these transactions were discovered and imprisoned by the British government. Ann. Reg. for 1776.

BOOK with the commander-in-chief and the magistrates of the New
 XL. England states, on the most eligible method of preserving,
 1776. supporting, and regulating a continental army. Recruiting
 orders were at length issued; but the progress in collecting
 recruits was not proportioned to the public exigence. At the
 close of the last year, when all the original troops not engaged
 on the new establishment were disbanded, there had been
 enlisted for the army of 1776, little more than nine thousand
 men. An earnest recommendation of Washington to try the
 influence of a *Bounty*, was at length acceded to by the con-
 gress; and during the winter, the number of recruits was
 considerably augmented. Soon after his assumption of the
 supreme command, Washington had engaged as his secretary
 and *aide-de-camp*, Joseph Reed a distinguished lawyer in
 Pennsylvania and latterly a determined advocate of American
 independence, who had resigned a lucrative forensic practice
 at Philadelphia in order to serve as a volunteer in the conti-
 nental army in Massachusetts. In his new functions, Reed
 displayed so much valour and ability, that on the promotion
 of Gates in the present year to a command directed against
 the British forces in Canada, he was appointed to succeed to
 his vacant post of adjutant-general of the American army.¹

January.

Before this army had received its regular military organiza-
 tion, or discipline had strengthened the hands of the officers,
 they were obliged to supply their defective power by the in-
 fluence of their own example and the authority of their per-
 sonal character. Passion and zeal had collected the first
 levies of men. But passions spend themselves; and zeal de-
 clines: while habits of discipline abide; and though they
 render the character of an army much less interesting, they
 increase its steadiness and vigour as an effective machine.
 After the first ardour of the American troops had been some-
 what spent, considerable vices and disorders broke out among
 them. The virtue (and it was very great) that still manifested
 itself in their ranks, was the more creditable from its supe-

¹ It was this officer who two years after thus replied to the offers of riches and honours by which the agents of Britain endeavoured to detach him from the cause of his country —“ I am not worth purchasing: but such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to buy me.”

riority to the contagious influence of evil example, and as arising purely from natural character and sentiment, and not from that professional sense of honour educated by the habits of civilized schools of war. Great disadvantage has accrued to the reputation of the American troops, from the almost intolerable pressure of the distress and privations to which they were exposed; and in some of the works that record their campaigns, the virtue they exerted in resisting temptations to mutiny and disorder, is obscured by the acts of pillage and desertion to which the extremity of suffering at length impelled them.

CHAP.
V.
1776.

The conflicts of Lexington and Bunker's Hill and other similar encounters that signalized the commencement of hostilities, tended to delude the Americans with very exaggerated notions of the efficacy of their militia, which had been exhibited in situations peculiarly favourable to a force of this description. The prevalence and the dangerous consequences of this delusion were strikingly illustrated by the general panic and consternation that followed the first signal successes of the disciplined troops of Britain in the close of the present year. It was a more surprising and more honourable trait in the character of the American troops and people, that even in such trying circumstances, they were never tempted to withdraw the generous confidence which they reposed in their commanders, but invariably displayed a noble superiority to those mean suspicions of treachery which rage and vanity so readily suggest to nations irritated by reverses after having been intoxicated by success. A numerous party in the congress, however, continued long to resist the formation of a regular army: and even when this could no longer be avoided, they jealously opposed the measures that were necessary to the improvement of its military habits and discipline. "God forbid," they exclaimed, "that the civic character should be so far lost in the soldiers of our army, that they should cease to long for the enjoyments of domestic happiness. Let frequent furloughs be granted, rather than the endearments of wives and children should cease to allure the individuals of our army from camps to farms."

Washington had hitherto found ample scope for his most February.

- BOOK XI. strenuous exertions, within the limits of his own encampment:¹ but desirous by some grand and important achievement to elevate the spirits of his army and country, he had for some time harboured the project of attacking Boston as soon as the circumstances of his situation might seem to justify a step so critical and adventurous. Towards the middle of February, the coldest portion of the season having begun, and the ice becoming sufficiently firm to support the troops, he was disposed to undertake that enterprise; but deferred it with reluctance in consequence of the almost unanimous disapprobation of his council of war. The effective regular force of the Americans in this quarter, now amounted to upwards of fourteen thousand men,—in addition to which, the commander-in-chief called into active service about six thousand of the militia of Massachusetts; and with these forces he determined to take possession of the heights of Dorchester, whence he would possess the power of inflicting severe annoyance on the British soldiery and shipping in the town and harbour of Boston. By assuming this position, from which an attempt to dislodge him by the enemy was inevitable, he expected to bring on a general action, during which he intended to cross with a part of his forces from the Cambridge side of the river and attack the town of Boston; expecting doubtless to be aided by a simultaneous insurrection of the citizens. To conceal his design, by diverting the attention of the British army, a heavy bombardment of their lines was commenced one evening and continued during the two following nights. On the third evening, immediately after the firing began, a strong detachment of the American forces, under the command of General Thomas, proceeding from Roxbury, took silent possession of Dorchester heights. The ground was almost impenetrably hard; but the night was mild: and by labouring with great diligence, the troops before morning had advanced their works so far as to cover themselves in a great measure from the shot of the enemy.
- March 2.
- March 4.
- March 5. When the British at break of day discovered these works,

¹ “It is not in the pages of history perhaps,” he observed in a letter to the congress, “to furnish a case like ours. To maintain a position within musket-shot of the enemy for six months together without ammunition, and at the same time to disband one army and recruit another, within that distance of more than twenty British regiments, is more, probably, than ever was before attempted.”

which were magnified to their view by the intervention of a hazy atmosphere, they were struck with astonishment, and gloomily anticipated a repetition of the carnage of Bunker's Hill. Nothing now remained but to abandon the town or instantly to dislodge the Americans from Dorchester heights. General Howe, with more enterprise and energy than usually characterized his military policy, decided to venture an attack ; and took measures for the embarkation on the same evening of two thousand chosen troops on this important and hazardous service. But the troops were hardly embarked in the transports, when a tremendous storm arose, and the fury of the elements intercepting human strife, rendered the execution of the design quite impracticable. A British council of war was assembled the next morning, and recommended the evacuation of Boston with all possible speed. Whether from the numerous preparations which were requisite, or from a lingering sentiment of shame in the breast of the British commander, some delay occurred before this measure was carried into effect. Meanwhile, the Americans were actively engaged in strengthening and extending their works ; and on the morning of the 17th of March, the British discovered a breast-work that had been constructed by their enemies during the night at Nook's Hill on Dorchester peninsula, which completely commanded Boston Neck and the southern quarters of the town. Delay was no longer consistent with safety. At four o'clock the next morning, the discomfited British army, amounting to about ten thousand men and attended by all the inhabitants of Boston who were attached to the royal cause, began to embark ; and in a few hours they were under sail for Halifax in Nova Scotia. As the British rear-guard embarked, Washington at the head of his successful forces marched into Boston, whose remaining inhabitants hailed their deliverance and deliverer with triumphant joy. A considerable quantity of valuable military stores fell into the possession of the victors : and a British vessel arriving at Boston soon after, with a tardy reinforcement to the fugitive army, was forced to surrender the troops she conveyed as prisoners of war.

CHAP.
V.

1776.

March 6.

March 17.

March 18.

Retreat of
the British
army from
Boston.

May.

While a part of the British troops were employed this year in reinforcing the garrison of Quebec and recovering Canada from the American invaders, another body had been directed

BOOK to attack and occupy some commanding position in the
 XI. southern provinces of America. The conduct of this enter-
 1776. prise was committed to General Clinton and Sir Peter Parker,
 who having formed a junction at Cape Fear, resolved to
 attempt the reduction of Charleston the metropolis of South
 Carolina. For this place they accordingly sailed with two
 thousand eight hundred land forces; and crossing Charleston
 June 4. Bar, anchored about three miles from Sullivan's Island. The
 people of South Carolina had already made the most strenuous
 efforts to put the province, and especially its capital, in a
 posture of defence. Works had been erected on Sullivan's
 Island, which lies about six miles below Charleston towards
 the sea, and affords a post well adapted to the annoyance and
 interruption of ships approaching the town. The militia of
 the state now repaired in great numbers to Charleston; and
 General Lee on whom the national congress had conferred
 the immediate command of all the forces in the southern de-
 partment of the commonwealth, arrived at this critical junc-
 ture with a detachment of regular troops from the northern
 provinces. After having consumed much valuable time in
 preparatory inquiries and dispositions, Parker at length¹ at-
 tacked the fort on Sullivan's Island with a squadron, which
 poured upon it a fire from two hundred and fifty-four cannons.
 On the fort were mounted twenty-six guns, with which the
 garrison, consisting of three hundred and seventy-five regulars
 and a few militia, under the command of Colonel Moultrie,
 made a gallant defence; while Colonel Thomson, at the head
 of seven hundred men, confronted and prevented an attack
 which was menaced by Clinton in another quarter of the
 island. The assault was maintained for ten hours. Shortly
 after it began, the flag-staff of the fort, struck by a shot, fell
 down upon the beach; whence it was instantly resumed by
 Jasper a serjeant in the American army, who, springing from
 the wall, and re-ascending in the midst of a tremendous fire,
 replaced it on the top of the rampart. Three of the
 British ships advancing to attack the western wing, became
 entangled with a shoal; and to this incident the safety of the
 garrison was ascribed. At night the firing ceased on both

Hostilities
 in South
 Carolina.

¹ June 28.

sides; the British ships slipped their cables; and the enterprise was abandoned. In this action the deliberate and well-directed fire of the garrison severely shattered the hostile vessels; and of their crews more than two hundred were killed and wounded. Ten men killed and twenty-two wounded formed the amount of the loss sustained by the garrison. Though many thousand balls were fired from the British squadron, yet the works of the fort were but little damaged. Its walls were chiefly built of the wood of the palmetto, a tree indigenous to South Carolina, and of a remarkably spongy nature; whence the shot that took effect was buried in the wood without shivering or splintering the object of resistance. Scarcely a hut or tree on the island escaped uninjured. Among other American officers who were engaged in this affair was Francis Marion, so highly renowned in the progress of the war for enterprising valour and inflexible fortitude and perseverance. The thanks of congress were voted to Lee, Moultrie, and Colonel Thomson.¹

Relieved from the presence of the British armament, the southern provinces had leisure to employ their forces in repelling and punishing an attack which they had sustained from a different quarter. No sooner did the controversy between Britain and America assume an aspect that betokened war, than the policy of the parent state was exerted to induce the Indian tribes to espouse her interest and support her quarrel. In the month of July 1775, a number of Indian chiefs, instigated by the hope of a wide vindictive range in carnage and ravage, and conducted by Johnson the principal agent of Britain among these savages, repaired to Montreal and solemnly pledged themselves to support the cause of the British king against the American people. Stuart,

¹ Ann. Reg. for 1776. Gordon. Bradford. Ramsay's Histories of the American Revolution, and of the Revolution of South Carolina. Holmès. Garden. Botta. Rogers. Nothing could exceed the bravery which the British displayed in their attack on Sullivan's Island. The behaviour of Morris, captain of the Bristol man-of-war, was particularly celebrated. After receiving a severe wound in the neck, and having his right arm shattered by a chain-shot, he retired to the cock-pit of his vessel where the mangled limb was amputated. No sooner was this operation performed than he re-ascended the deck, where, as he was undauntedly directing and animating the fight, he received a third and mortal wound. Such valour must have triumphed but for the equal valour with which it was encountered. The American serjeant Jasper executed what even the romantic courage of Hotspur would hardly have deemed "an easy leap."

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1776. another British agent, by magnificent promises of reward and assistance, had more recently induced the Creeks and the Cherokees to interrupt their friendly relation with Virginia and the Carolinas. The Creeks, eagerly rushing to war, were as suddenly depressed and paralyzed by the manifest inability of Stuart to fulfil his insidious promises. Imploring and obtaining pardon from the colonists, they rejected a subsequent overture of alliance from the Cherokees, with the declaration that they had surprisingly escaped from destruction, and were determined no more to need such good fortune. The Cherokees, with more resolute ferocity, adhered to their hostile purpose; and encouraged by the approach of Clinton and Parker, committed the most horrible ravages on the Virginian and Carolian frontiers. Attacked by the combined forces of these provinces, after the repulse of the British from Sullivan's Island, the Cherokees were defeated in various engagements and forced to evacuate their territory and take refuge in Florida.

The most important enterprise by which the British government had proposed to illustrate the campaign of this year, was the occupation of New York by a powerful body of troops, to be composed of a detachment from the army of Sir William Howe, aided by strong reinforcements despatched from England under the command of his brother Lord Howe, who along with himself, in addition to their military functions, had been appointed to exercise the vain office of commissioners for restoring peace and harmony between Britain and America, by granting *pardons* in the king's name to such Americans as would surrender their arms and sue for indulgence. Washington was sensible of the danger to which New York was exposed from the importance which the British must attach to its occupation; and during the siege of Boston, had detached General Lee from the camp in Massachusetts to conduct defensive preparations in Long Island and New York. Soon after the evacuation of Boston, Washington, having despatched reinforcements to the American troops in Canada, and leaving some troops in Massachusetts, repaired himself with the main body of his army to New York, where his headquarters were established on the 14th of April. Sir William Howe and the generals Clinton and Lord Percy, with their

forces which had been withdrawn from Boston, waited long at Halifax for the promised succour from Britain; and it was not till, despairing of its arrival, they had sailed for New York, that they were joined by the auxiliary British armament conducted by Lord Howe and Lord Cornwallis. But so much of the year had now elapsed, that the ineffectual attempts of the commissioners, as well as the consequent military operations of the British troops, fall not within the scope of this work.

The late rigorous measures of the British king and parliament in concurrence with the progress of actual hostilities, the irritating devastation of the American coasts, and the elevating successes that crowned the American arms, had contributed to inflame and propagate in America the firmest purpose of decisive warfare, and every sentiment tending to an open assertion of national independence. It was plainly declared by the recent acts of parliament, that the inhabitants of America, so far from being included any longer within the pale of royal protection, were delivered up to the most vindictive severities of British power. "Protection and allegiance are reciprocal;" became the general exclamation of the Americans; "and to withdraw the one, is to discharge the other." Nothing rendered the royal government more generally odious, or contributed with more decisive efficacy to promote the resolution of independence, than the measure of employing German mercenary soldiers, in the subjugation of America.¹ When the Americans learned that foreigners were to be introduced to decide a domestic quarrel, and that instead of contending with men educated in the same acknowledged principles with themselves, they were to be exposed to the hired ferocity of German slaves,—the last tie that held them to Britain, the allegiance they professed to their prince, was

¹ In the sequel also it contributed to sustain and render effectual the resolution of independence. The German auxiliaries of Britain, at first from wanton indifference for the Americans, and afterwards from resentment of the furious abhorrence to which they found themselves exposed, indulged their cruelty and cupidity in the most barbarous devastation and pillage. The English generals could neither restrain the barbarity of the Germans nor wholly preserve their own troops from the contagious influence of such evil example. Nothing tended more effectually to rouse the Americans from the depression occasioned by the first successes of the British and German forces than the vindictive rage with which they were inspired by the rapine and insolence of the victors. Written *protections* granted to Americans by the British officers were vainly presented to soldiers who not understanding English, could not read them.

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broken. "He employs," they exclaimed, "the borrowed tools of the most detestable tyrants of Europe, to subvert American liberty and to erect on its ruins the same despotic power of which they are the instruments and guardians in their own native land, and from the rigour of which so many of their own oppressed countrymen have already sought refuge in America." These sentiments were warmly expressed by the Americans, at the very time, (and indeed somewhat posterior to the time) when their own domestic government had deeply engaged in negotiations for obtaining the aid and interposition of France in the quarrel with England. If England seek the aid of foreign powers (it was asked) may not and must not America do the same? And how can she hope to obtain open and vigorous assistance, till she seek it in the character of an independent state? Among the violent declarations which were elicited at this period from the American communities, we distinguish a resolution of the Committee of Safety for the province of Georgia, to defend their metropolis Savannah to the last extremity, and to burn the town and shipping rather than suffer them to fall into the hands of the British. Not less was the displeasure excited in America by the intelligence of the exertions that were made by British officers and agents to excite the Indian tribes to espouse the cause of Britain, and promote it by their cruel and barbarous system of warfare; although the American governments had themselves made urgent application to the Indians, and solicited their savage aid to the cause of liberty and independence. There was certainly, however, a wide difference between employing Indian savages to resist the hostilities of armed soldiers, and engaging them to attack defenceless citizens and husbandmen, and make war on villages, plantations, and families. The continental congress besides, accounted the sanction which it gave to the employment of Indian auxiliaries, a measure of necessary defence and rightful retaliation. An entire neutrality was preferably desired and earnestly recommended to the Indians by this body.¹ It might have been foreseen from the first, as it was

¹ For a while, some of the Indian tribes professed a strict neutrality between Britain and America. The Oneida tribe of the Six Nations thus replied to the overtures of the Americans:—"Brothers! we have heard of the unhappy differences and great contention between you and Old England. We wonder greatly and are

clearly manifested in the sequel, that the employment of such auxiliaries in such a contest, was less likely to affect its final issue, than to promote odium, animosity, and irritation. Britain suffered most from these unfavourable sentiments; because her camps and fortresses, the only possessions which she enjoyed in America, were less exposed to Indian ravage than the settlements and plantations of the Americans. Lord Effingham, Lord Pitt son of the Earl of Chatham, Wilson a member of the Irish parliament, and several other persons distinguished by their rank or character, who held commissions in the British army, protesting against the injustice of the quarrel and the disgraceful association required from them with German mercenaries and savage Indians, withdrew at this period from the British service. Among others who refused to serve against America, was a young naval lieutenant named Cartwright, long afterwards highly celebrated as a zealous and disinterested patriot, under the title of Major Cartwright. He was urged to accept a commission in the service of America; but declared that though he would never be accessory to an unjust and offensive war upon that country, he would yet *stick to England as long as a plank of her remained above water*. Many natives of Britain, however, were less scrupulously attached to their particular birth-place; and having formed connections by residence in America and intercourse with it, conceived that in this great divulsion of the empire, they were entitled to choose which portion of it they would adhere to. Some daring adventurers also, of dubious extraction, found in this tempestuous crisis an element congenial to their restless souls, and figured as partizans of liberty, more or less sincere, on the scene of American affairs. Among these was a person who obtained the

much troubled in mind. Brothers! possess your minds in peace with respect to us, and take no umbrage that we refuse joining in the contest. We are for peace. We cannot intermeddle in a dispute between two brothers." To this professed neutrality the Oneida tribe steadily adhered. All the other tribes of the Six Nations espoused the cause of Great Britain. Some Indian nations however embraced the interests of America. A small tribe thus expressed its sentiments to the provincial congress of Massachusetts:—"Brothers! we have always been friends. When you were small, we were great and we protected you. Now you are great and tall, we are small and not so high as your heel; and you take care of us. Brothers! whenever we see your blood running, we will revenge it. Though we are small, we will gripe hold of your enemy's heel, that he cannot run so fast and so light as if he had nothing at his heels."

BOOK rank of general in the American army, and was named Alexander. He had been in Britain an unsuccessful claimant of XI.
1776. the Scottish title of Lord Stirling; and declared by the House of Lords an impostor. The Americans, though arrayed against royal and aristocratical pretensions, readily complimented Alexander with the empty ascription of a title, the substantial loss of which perhaps occasioned his espousal of their cause. It was remarked that on the very day¹ after that on which Lord Pitt resigned his commission, two Indian chiefs from Canada were presented at the British court and graciously received by the king. One of them carrying a tomahawk in his hand, and having his face painted with the representation of streaks of blood, attended the king at a review of a body of troops that were preparing to embark for America. Petitions and instructions now began to flow to the congress from most parts of America, desiring and authorizing the open proclamation of American independence.

Notwithstanding these indications the congress prudently desirous in a matter of such importance to follow rather than to precede the march of public spirit and opinion, still hesitated to broach the claim of independence, and waited a more general and deliberate expression of the national wish and readiness for this consummation. They studied by gradual approach to familiarize the public mind to the contemplation of independence, and by preparatory measures so far to realize this condition, as to diminish the alarm connected with its fateful name. In this politic course they were prompted to make a notable stride by the intelligence which arrived in the spring of the rejection of their last petition to the king, and of the acts of parliament which authorized the employment of German troops and the confiscation of American ships, and by the general and lively indignation which this intelligence provoked. The measures which they embraced on this occasion imported the boldest defiance of British authority, and tended to unite the fortune of America with the interests of every commercial state in the world. They directed² reprisals to be made by armed vessels, both public and private, on all British ships and cargoes; and deliberately

¹ February 28.

² March 23.

breaking the shackles of that monopoly by which their commerce had been so long held in bondage, they declared the ports of America open to all the world except Great Britain. About two months after,¹ emboldened perhaps by the expulsion of the British troops from Boston, the congress, as a provocation and preparatory step to independence, recommended to the various provincial assemblies and conventions an entire suspension throughout America of all authority derived from British appointment, and the adoption of such forms of government as they should judge most conducive to the happiness and safety of their constituents. The recommendation of the congress was instantly carried into effect; and all the provincial governments were now re-constructed in conformity with the principle that in each commonwealth the will of the citizens was the supreme and independent source of power, and that the majesty of the crown was superseded by the majesty of the people. Some varieties were visible in the details of these new political structures; but the general features of their composition were alike, and the same fundamental principles pervaded them all. This change was effected with little agitation and without any dangerous convulsion. The general diffusion of knowledge in America defended its inhabitants from the chimeras of ignorant enthusiasm. Familiarized with a reasonable and orderly freedom, they were not likely to mistake the features of a political blessing which had been always embodied in their favourite domestic institutions. They cherished, revered, and pursued it with an ardour passionate yet tempered by sober sense and reason, and untinctured with that visionary strain of undisciplined fancy which misleads expectation and misguides practice. Every mode of happiness and enjoyment adapted to the capacities of human nature is cherished with more solid regard, and cultivated with more judicious concern, in proportion to the virtuous freedom of acquaintance habitually admitted between its objects and its admirers. Some of the royal governors had unnecessarily deserted their executive functions, and in the plenitude of rashness, insolence, and ignorance, predicted an inextricable chaos and confusion as the result of an abrupt

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The Americans declare their commerce free.

¹ May 10.

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extinction of the lamp of royal prerogative. Never was policy more disappointed nor prediction more completely falsified. No violent or extensive change was required to enable the American communities to accomplish the transition to what they desired from what they had already theoretically or practically enjoyed.

This memorable year was additionally signalized by the third and last voyage of the illustrious navigator Captain Cooke,—an exploit recommended to our present notice by its connection with the history and labours of a distinguished American traveller. John Ledyard a native of Connecticut, cherished from his earliest years an ardent desire to explore the undiscovered regions of the globe. He was placed at Dartmouth College, with a view to the study of divinity; but, diverted by taste or driven by penury from his academic pursuits, he forsook the college and performed a part of his homeward journey in a canoe constructed by his own hands. Yielding to the favourite inclination of his genius, he passed several years among the Indians, studying their manners and cultivating the means of recommending himself to the favour and protection of savages. He was enabled to visit England by engaging himself as a common sailor on board a ship bound from New York to London, and now gained admission among the associates of Cook's last voyage,—accepting the humble situation of corporal of marines rather than forego an opportunity so inviting to his inquisitive and adventurous spirit. The qualities which he displayed in this voyage won the praise of his great pattern and commander, who recognised with esteem the kindred genius which was afterwards illustrated with so much honour and renown by the travels of Ledyard in Europe, Asia, and Africa.¹

In all the states of America, there were a few of the inhabitants firmly attached (from prejudice, from principle, or from interest) to the royal cause, and who received the appellation of *Tories* from the rest of their countrymen, by whom they were regarded with implacable rage and detestation.²

¹ Miller's Retrospect. St. John's Memoirs of Ledyard. Ledyard was born in 1751, and died at Grand Cairo in 1788.

² John Adams, in a letter to his friend Cushing during the revolutionary war, reminds him that "I strenuously recommended at first to fine, imprison, and hang all

The vain efforts of these persons to stem the prevailing current of national sentiment and purpose, were now aided by the sect of quakers¹ in America, who, after a long retirement from all concern with politics and political controversy, came forward this year with rekindled zeal in support of the declining cause of royalty, and published at Philadelphia a declaration of non-resistance to the king whom they pronounced to be set over them by God, and lawfully removable by the same Great Being alone. They seemed entirely to exclude from the scheme of nature and Providence, the operation of the Divine will through human instrumentality. As a *sect*, the quakers exposed themselves to general reproach in America by this proceeding, and by the repeated testimonies which they subsequently published during the revolutionary war, of adherence to Britain and sympathy with the occasional success of her arms. But as a *body of men*, the conduct of the American quakers was exceedingly various. Many enlightened, and estimable persons who had hitherto professed quakerism in America, now openly embracing the American cause and taking arms in its defence, were excommunicated by their more consistent fellow-sectaries. Among those were General Mifflin who afterwards became president of the congress, and General Greene the greatest military genius that America produced in the revolutionary war. Of the quakers who adhered to their doctrine of non-resistance, there were some who demeaned themselves during the whole of the contest with a strict neutrality, supported by the most magnanimous intrepidity. One of these, Warner Mifflin, whose serene dauntless heart feared neither the pride nor the cruelty of man, sought an interview with General Howe, and reproached him for the desolation inflicted by his troops on America : and when the quakers had become objects of general dislike and suspicion to the Americans, at the risk of being considered and treated as a spy, he penetrated to Washington

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Conduct of
the American
Quakers.

Americans inimical to the cause without favour or affection." He adds, "I would have hanged my own brother if he had taken part with our enemy in this contest." Ann. Reg. for 1781.

¹ Voltaire in speculating on the probable conduct of the quakers at this crisis, shows at least his acquaintance with their policy on former occasions. In a letter to the King of Prussia dated the 30th of March, 1776, he says :—"I do not believe that my dear quakers will fight with their own hands, but they will pay others to fight for them."

BOOK in his camp, and defended their conduct. The behaviour of
 V. some others of them, however, was by no means defensible
 1776. either by the general principles of honour, or by those peculiar
 sectarian principles to which they professed an inviolable
 adherence. They exasperated the Americans by congratulating the British on their victories; even when these victories had been sullied by the most barbarous outrage, rapine, and cruelty: and two of them were hanged for assisting a party of British troops to rescue some of their captive comrades, by disclosing the place where they were confined by the Americans as prisoners of war.¹

We willingly turn to a more agreeable feature in the contemporary proceedings of the American quakers. Our attention has already been too often solicited by that painful circumstance in the composition of American society, negro slavery. The present condition of the free colonists was peculiarly fitted to impress them with clear and just notions of the merits, both moral and political, of this institution. Protesting, themselves, against established authority, and appealing from its maxims and pretensions to the general rights of man and the presumed will of God, they sought the protection of principles which manifestly sanctioned a similar appeal against the bondage to which their own negro slaves were consigned.² If the pious and the reasonable were impressed with this consideration, the timid and interested were not less struck with apprehension of the dangerous accession which

¹ See Note XIX. at the end of the volume.

² Innumerable citations to this effect might be extracted from the speeches of American patriots and the resolves and manifestoes of American assemblies. The proclamation by which the continental congress in 1775 justified its military preparations commenced in the following manner:—"If it were possible for men who exercise their reason to believe that the Divine Author of our existence intended a part of the human race to hold an absolute property in and an unbounded power over others, marked out by his infinite goodness and wisdom as the objects of a legal domination never rightly resistible, however severe and oppressive; the inhabitants of these colonies might at least require from the parliament of Great Britain some evidence that this dreadful authority over them has ever been granted to that body. But a reverence for our Great Creator, principles of humanity, and the dictates of common sense must convince all those who reflect upon the subject that government was instituted to promote the welfare of mankind, and ought to be administered for the attainment of that end," &c.

"If there be," said Day the author of *Sandford and Merton*, "an object truly ridiculous in nature, it is an American patriot signing resolutions in favour of liberty with the one hand, and with the other brandishing a whip over his affrighted slaves." Day in the present year (1776) reprobated the policy and predicted the discomfiture of the British operations in America in a poem entitled "The Devoted Legions."

the hostile force of England was likely to derive from the enslaved negro population. In all the provinces, an increased humanity was now displayed in the treatment of negro slaves and of Indian neighbours. The humane exertions of a party among the quakers to mitigate the evils of negro slavery have already on several occasions demanded our notice, and merited a praise inferior only to that which is due to the unvaunted proceedings which we recently remarked¹ in Massachusetts. But the disinterested example which had been afforded by many of the inhabitants of Massachusetts, was now to be imitated by a majority of the society of quakers. Two years prior to the present period, the annual convocation of the quakers of Pennsylvania and New Jersey issued an ordinance denouncing excommunication against all members of their communion who should import, buy, or sell negro slaves, or retain negroes in a state of slavery for a longer period than the legal or customary endurance of the indentures of white servants. And in the present year, the same assembly passed a statute of excommunication against every quaker who should for a moment longer detain a negro in a state of slavery.² Thus the emancipation of their slaves by the quakers, and the emancipation of themselves from British tyranny by the Americans in general, were contemporary events; and *which*, it may be asked,—the act of just sacrifice or the act of generous exertion,—was the transaction most honourable to human nature? Without attempting the impossibility of answering this question to the satisfaction of every class of thinkers, it may be remarked, with little hazard of contradiction, that the conduct of the American quakers would have afforded scope for more unmixed commendation if they had refrained from embarrassing the exertions of their countrymen for the achievement of political liberty.

The American congress had now received from a great majority of the thirteen confederated states which it repre-

Proceed-
ings in
congress—

¹ *Ante*, chap. iii. The first decisive interference of the legislature of Massachusetts on this subject occurred in the year 1777, when a British vessel with a cargo of negro slaves was captured by an American privateer and carried into Salem. The captors proposed to sell the negroes: but the legislature forbade the sale, and directed that the negroes should be set at liberty. Bradford.

² Ann. Reg. for 1776. Gordon. Holmes. Pitkin. Garden. Rogers. Clarkson's Hist. of the Abolit. of the Slave Trade. Brissot's Travels in America. Botta.

BOOK XI.
 1776. sented, either urgent entreaties or deliberate consent and authority to the dissolution of all farther political connexion with Great Britain. One or two of the provincial assemblies had refrained from giving any explicit directions on this subject to their representatives; the directions from Maryland were latterly unfavourable to an immediate assertion of independence; and those from Pennsylvania and Delaware were flatly opposed to it. But the leading partizans of independence perceived that the time had now arrived when this great design must be either openly espoused or definitively abandoned; and they were convinced that in every one of the states the majority of the people, however credulous or desirous of a reconciliation with Britain, would rather repudiate such views than retain them in opposition to the declared and general policy of America. On the 7th of June, accordingly, a motion was made in congress by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, for declaring the American states free and independent. This proposition induced long and animated debates, and afforded scope to the largest display of wisdom, genius, and eloquence, in the discussion of a question than which none more interesting to human liberty and happiness was ever before submitted to the decision of a national assembly. The American congress, in its original constitution, exhibiting the citizens of a subordinate commonwealth in the act of assuming into their own hands the reins of government which a superior state had previously wielded over them, presented a spectacle of high and agitating interest to human nature and civilized society. Debating now, if the grand idea which it had suggested was to be regretfully abandoned or boldly realized, it addressed the universal sentiments of mankind with extended interest and augmented dignity. A very ordinary degree of knowledge and reflection may enable any person to suggest to himself the principal topics which *must* have been urged in the conduct of this great debate; but no authentic report of the actual discussion has been transmitted. John Adams, who supported the project of independence, and Dickinson, who opposed it, were acknowledged to have pre-eminently distinguished themselves by their rhetoric and ingenuity. Adams (as we are desired by tradition to believe, and authorized by probability to sup-

June 7.

CHAP.
V.
1776.

pose) forcibly maintained that a restoration of union and harmony between Britain and America was impossible; that military conquest alone could restore the British ascendancy; and that an open declaration of independence was imperiously required to harmonize the views of the Americans, to confirm their spirits in an inevitable conflict, and to enable them to seek, expect, and obtain effectual succour from foreign powers.¹ Dickinson is said to have insisted (and very plausibly it must be allowed) that an instant dissolution of the American confederacy could be produced by the mere act of Great Britain in withdrawing her fleets and armies at the present juncture; but in maintaining, as he is also reported to have done, that the same breach of federal union, aggravated by an effervescence of popular spirit incompatible with civil order, must ensue from the withdrawment of the British troops at a later period and after a prolonged contest and the excitation of furious passion in every part of America, he seems to have disregarded the continued influence of that bond of union whose initial operation he was so strongly impressed with, and to have undervalued the wisdom and virtue which his countrymen were capable of exerting for the extinction of the flames of revolutionary passions. Some members of the congress opposed a declaration of independence as unwarrantable or premature; and others for a while were reluctantly deterred from supporting it by the instructions of their constituents. After the discussion had been protracted for nearly a month, during which interval the hesitation or opposition of a minority of the states was overborne, as had been foreseen, by the current of the general will,—the measure proposed by Lee was approved and embraced by a vote almost unanimous;¹ and a document entitled

¹ Before the close of this year the congress were practically sensible of the advantage which only an open pretension to independence was capable of opposing to the impressions created by defeat and misfortune. Seeing many of their constituents and some of their troops disheartened by the first successes of the bands of disciplined mercenaries employed by Britain, they declared by a manifesto to their countrymen that essential services had already been rendered to them by foreign states, and that they had received the most positive assurances of farther aid. This was derided as a false and vain boast by the British journals; notwithstanding a proclamation of the King of Spain in the month of October declaring all the Spanish ports freely open to American vessels.

² Ann. Reg. for 1776. Gordon. Rogers. Pitkin. Botta.

B O O K
XI.

1776.

July 4.

Declara-
tion of
American
Independ-
ence.

“Declaration of the Independence of the Thirteen United States of North America,” composed by Thomas Jefferson,¹ was subscribed by all the members who were willing to indulge the wish, to accomplish the glory, and to confront the danger of their country.² This admirable production commenced in the following manner:—“When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with one another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature’s God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

“We hold these truths to be self-evident;—that all men are created equal, and endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness: that to secure their rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just power from the consent of the governed; that whenever any government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to promote their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established, should not be changed for light or transient causes: and accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed.”

After a spirited recital of the wrongs which the American states had endured from the government and people of Great Britain, the Declaration thus concluded:—“We must then acquiesce in the necessity which announces our separation,

¹ It has been said that when this illustrious man was subsequently advanced to the dignity of President of the United States, the magistrates of the Federal City requested to know from him what was the anniversary of his birth, as the citizens desired to honour a day so deservedly dear to America; and that Jefferson returned for answer, “The only birth-day I ever celebrate is the 4th of July, the birth-day of our country’s liberty.”

² See Note XX. at the end of the volume.

and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war C H A P.
—in peace, friends. V.

“ We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of 1776.
America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.”¹ Thus at once all the vague and various notions respecting the legitimate boundaries of royal prerogative or British supremacy, by which the Americans had been hitherto divided and embarrassed, were finally discarded from the international controversy, which now presented only the one grand and simple question—Whether the inhabitants of North America should in future exist as conquered colonists, or as a free and independent people?

This great transaction, at once involving the creation of a new empire, and exposing it in the very hour of its birth to the vindictive hostility of the most powerful monarchy in the world, was conducted in the metropolis of the state of Pennsylvania,—a city which had existed little more than ninety years, and whose population would have entitled it to very little distinction in a European commonwealth,—the centre of quakerism in America, and of which the inhabitants were generally characterized by moderation of temper and sobriety

¹ The articles of confederation between the states which defined the powers of congress were not arranged and ratified till about three months later. They were published almost contemporaneously with a royal proclamation (in England) enjoining a fast for *the deliverance of America from the tyranny and injustice of rebels, who* (so said the proclamation) *had assumed there the exercise of arbitrary power.*

B O O K
XI.

1774.

of manners. Pennsylvania, after repeatedly opposing, was one of the latest of the provinces in assenting to the project of independence. Hence, as well as from the privacy with which the proceedings of the congress were still conducted, no adventitious fervour was communicated to this assembly by the contagious vicinity of popular excitement, or the animating presence and sympathy of a crowded and admiring audience. In the congress thus sequestered from an influence of which the most enterprising assemblies in the world have acknowledged the powerful efficacy, the heroic or ambitious partizans of American independence were aware that the glory of the measure must be shared with all their colleagues; while the cautious and timid were conscious that the danger of it was equally extended to every individual who should sign the Declaration. Every man indeed who concurred in this decisive measure, irrevocably staked his life and fortune on the achievement of his country's freedom, and linked his own fate to the high destiny of North America.¹

The Declaration of Independence was received and published with enthusiastic applause in all the confederated states: and on the evening of its arrival at New York, a leaden statue of the king of Britain, which had been erected in former days, was thrown down, and appointed to be melted into bullets for the use of the American army.²

Conclu-
sion.

In reviewing these remarkable tides in the affairs of men and nations, it is difficult to resist the temptation of speculating on the consequences that might have resulted from a conduct and policy different from that which was actually pursued. Had Britain, after the treaty of Paris, discerned the change which her relation with America had actually undergone, and liberally recognised it: had she, instead of aggravating the pressure of her commercial restrictions, and introducing new regulations still more arbitrary and severe, begun with prevenient grace to relax those bonds; and finally, acknowledging the national maturity of her colonies, declared

¹ See Note XXI. at the end of the volume.

² Ann. Reg. for 1776.

them independent ; and, trusting to their grateful friendship, sought to negotiate with them a commercial treaty beneficial to her own people,—would the consequences of this policy, more magnanimous than any nation has ever shown itself capable of,¹ have proved more conducive than the scenes which actually occurred, to the happiness of Britain, America, and mankind in general? To suppose so, would be to impeach the wisdom or beneficence of the dominion exerted by Providence over the passions of men and the stream of events. As the commonwealths of America had not owed their existence, so they were destined not to owe their independence to European grace and liberality. If Britain had merely persisted in her original course of policy, without aggravating its severity, the Americans, notwithstanding, would doubtless have revolted in process of time : but in that case, most probably, either the revolt would have been partial, irregular, and proportionally ineffective, or, if it had been general, it would, from the increased growth and strength of the provinces, have been instantly successful. The sudden increase in the mode and measure of British domination, caused all the states to revolt simultaneously ; and the long and arduous struggle that ensued, served to knit them together in strong conjunction, and prepared them for permanent federal association.

¹ “ There are instances in which individual rulers weary of power have freely resigned it : but no people ever yet voluntarily surrendered authority over a subject nation.” Heeren's *Reflections on the Politics of Ancient Greece*.

NOTES

TO

THE FOURTH VOLUME.

NOTE I. Page 9.

“SUCH are the connexions, dependencies, and relations subsisting between the mechanical arts, agriculture, and manufactures of Great Britain, that it requires study, deliberation, and inquiry in the legislature, to discern and distinguish the whole scope and consequences of many projects offered for the benefit of the commonwealth. The society of merchant adventurers in the city of Bristol alleged, in a petition to the House of Commons, that great quantities of bar-iron were imported into Great Britain from Sweden, Russia, and other ports, chiefly purchased with ready money, some of which iron was exported again to Africa and other places, and the rest wrought up by the manufacturers. They affirmed that bar-iron imported from North America would answer the same purposes; and the importation of it tend not only to the great advantage of the kingdom, by increasing its shipping and navigation, but also to the benefit of the British colonies. That, by an act passed in the twenty-third year of his present Majesty’s reign, the importation of bar-iron from America into the port of London, duty free, was permitted; but its being carried coastways, or farther by land than ten miles, had been prohibited; so that several very considerable manufacturing towns were deprived of the use of American iron, and the outports prevented from employing it in their export commerce: they requested, therefore, that bar-iron might be imported from America into Great Britain, duty free, by all his Majesty’s subjects. This request being reinforced by many other petitions from different parts of the kingdom, other classes of men, who thought several interests would be affected by such a measure, took the alarm; and, in divers counter-petitions, stated many ill consequences which, they alleged, would arise from its being enacted into

a law. Pamphlets were published on both sides of the question, and violent disputes were kindled upon this subject, which was justly deemed a matter of national importance. The opposers of the bill which was solicited observed, that large quantities of iron were yearly produced at home, and employed multitudes of poor people, there being no less than one hundred and nine forges in England and Wales, besides those erected in Scotland; the whole producing eighteen thousand tons of iron. That, as the mines in Great Britain are inexhaustible, the produce would, of late years, have been considerably increased, had not the people been kept under continual apprehension of seeing American iron admitted duty free; a supposition which had prevented the traders from extending their works, and discouraged many from engaging in this branch of traffic. They alleged that the iron-works, already carried on in England, occasioned a consumption of one hundred and ninety-eight thousand cords of wood, produced in coppices that grow upon barren lands, which could not otherwise be turned to any good account:—that, as the coppices afford shade, and preserve a moisture in the ground, the pasture is more valuable with the wood, than it would be if the coppices were grubbed up; consequently, all the estates where these now grow would sink in their yearly value:—that these coppices, now cultivated and preserved for the use of the iron-works, are likewise absolutely necessary for the manufacture of leather, as they furnish bark for the tanners; and that, according to the management of these coppices, they produced a great number of timber trees, so necessary for the purposes of building.—They asserted, that neither the American iron, nor any that had yet been found in Great Britain, was so proper for converting into steel, as that which comes from Sweden, particularly that sort called *ore ground*; but as there are mines in the northern parts of Britain, nearly in the same latitude with those of Sweden, furnished with sufficient quantities of wood, and rivers for mills and engines, it was hardly to be doubted but that people would find metal of the same quality, and, in a few years, be able to prevent the necessity of importing iron either from Sweden or Russia.—They inferred, that American iron could never interfere with that which Great Britain imported from Sweden, because it was not fit for edged tools, anchors, chain-plates, and other particulars necessary in ship building; nor diminish the importation of Russian iron, which was not only harder than the American and British, but also could be afforded cheaper than that brought from our own plantations, even though the duty on this last should be removed. The importation of American iron, therefore, duty free, could interfere with no other sort but that produced in Britain, with which, by means of this advantage, it would clash so much, as to put a stop, in a little time, to all the iron-works now carried on in the kingdom, and reduce to beggary a great number of families whom they support. To these objections, the favourers

of the projected bill replied,—that, when a manufacture is much more valuable than the rough materials, and these cannot be produced at home in sufficient quantities, and at such a price, as is consistent with the preservation of the manufacture, it is the interest of the legislature to admit a free importation of these materials, even from foreign countries, although it should put an end to the production of that material in this island.—That, as the neighbours of Great Britain are now more attentive than ever to their commercial interests, and endeavouring to manufacture their rough materials at home, this nation must take every method for lowering the price of materials, otherwise, in a few years, it will lose the manufacture; and, instead of supplying other countries, be furnished by them with all the fine toys and utensils made of steel and iron.—That, being in danger of losing not only the manufacture but the produce of iron, unless it can be procured at a cheaper rate than that for which it is sold at present, the only way of attaining this end is by diminishing the duty payable upon the importation of foreign iron, or by rendering it necessary for the undertakers of the iron mines in Great Britain to sell their produce cheaper than it has been for some years afforded.—That the most effectual method for this purpose is to raise up a rival, by permitting a free importation of all sorts of iron from the American plantations.—That American iron can never be sold so cheap as that of Britain can be afforded; for, in the colonies, labour of all kinds is much dearer than in England: if a man employ his own slaves, he must reckon in his charge a great deal more than the common interest of their purchase-money, because, when one of them dies, or escapes from his master, he loses both interest and principal.—That the common interest of money in the plantations is considerably higher than in England; consequently no man in that country will employ his money in any branch of trade, by which he cannot gain considerably more per cent. than is expected in Great Britain, where the interest is low, and profit moderate; a circumstance which will always give a great advantage to the British miner, who likewise enjoys an exemption from freight and insurance, which lie heavy upon the American adventurer, especially in time of war. With respect to the apprehension of the leather tanners, they observed, that as the coppices generally grow on barren lands, not fit for tillage, and improved the pasturage, no proprietor would be at the expense of grubbing up the wood to spoil the pasture, as he could make no other use of the land on which it was produced. The wood must be always worth something, especially in counties where there is not plenty of coal, and the timber trees would produce considerable advantage; therefore, if there was not one iron-mine in Great Britain, no coppice would be grubbed up, unless it grew on a rich soil, which would produce corn instead of cord-wood; consequently, the tanners have nothing to fear, especially as planting hath become a prevailing taste among the landholders of

the island. The Committee appointed to prepare the bill seriously weighed and canvassed these arguments, examined disputed facts, and inspected papers and accounts relating to the produce, importation, and manufacture of iron. At length, Mr. John Pitt reported to the house their opinion, implying that the liberty granted by an act passed in the twenty-third year of his Majesty's reign, of importing bar-iron from the British colonies in America into the port of London, should be extended to all the other ports of Great Britain. The House having approved this report, and a bill being brought in accordingly, another petition was presented by several noblemen, gentlemen, freeholders, and other proprietors, owners, and possessors of coppices and woodlands, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, alleging, that a permission to import American bar-iron duty free, would be attended with numberless ill consequences, both of a public and private nature; specifying certain hardships to which they, in particular, would be exposed; and praying, that if the bill should pass, they might be relieved from the pressure of an act passed in the reign of Henry the Eighth, obliging the owners of coppice woods to preserve them, under severe penalties; and that they might be permitted to fell and grub up their coppice-woods, in order to a more proper cultivation of the soil, without being restrained by the fear of malicious and interested prosecutions. In consequence of this remonstrance, a clause was added to the bill, repealing so much of the act of Henry the Eighth, as prohibited the conversion of coppice or under-woods into pasture or tillage: then it passed through both houses, and received the royal sanction." Smollett.

NOTE II. Page 23.

As Franklin's Historical Review of the Constitution of Pennsylvania, is not easily to be found, except in a voluminous edition of his works, nor indeed has it a place in every edition of them, some readers may be gratified by the following transcript of a few remarkable passages from it:—

"To obtain an infinite variety of purposes, by a few plain principles, is the characteristic of nature. As the eye is affected, so is the understanding: objects at a distance, strike us according to their dimensions, or the quantity of light thrown upon them: near, according to their novelty or familiarity, as they are in motion or at rest. It is the same with actions. A battle is all motion; a hero all glare: while such images are before us, we can attend to nothing else. Solon and Lycurgus would make no figure in the same scene with the king of Prussia, and we are at present so lost in the military scramble on the continent next us, in which it must be confessed, we are deeply interested, that we have scarce time to throw a glance towards America, were we have also much at stake, and where, if any where, our account must be made up at last.

"We love to stare more than to reflect; and to be indolently amused at our leisure, rather than commit the smallest trespass on our patience by winding a painful, tedious maze, which would pay us nothing but knowledge." —

"A father and his family, the latter united by interest and affection, the former to be revered for the wisdom of his instructions, and the indulgent use of his authority, was the form in which Pennsylvanian society was first presented. Those who were only ambitious of repose, found it here; and as none returned with an evil report of the land, numbers followed: all partook of the leaven they found; the community still wore the same equal face; nobody aspired; nobody was oppressed; industry was sure of profit, knowledge of esteem, and virtue of veneration.

"An assuming landlord, strongly disposed to convert free tenants into abject vassals, and to reap what he did not sow, countenanced and abetted by a few desperate and designing dependents on the one side; and on the other, all who had sense enough to know their rights, and spirit enough to defend them, combined as one man against this landlord and his encroachments, is the form it has since assumed.

"And surely to a nation born to liberty like this,¹ bound to leave it unimpaired as they received it from their fathers in perpetuity to their heirs, and interested in the conservation of it in every appendage of the British empire, the particulars of such a contest cannot be wholly indifferent.

"On the contrary, it is reasonable to think that the first workings of tyranny against liberty, and the natural efforts of honest men to secure themselves against the first approaches of oppression must have a captivating power over every man of sensibility and discernment among us.

"Liberty, it seems, thrives but in the woods. America but cultivated what Germany brought forth." —

"It is not, indeed, to be presumed, that such as have long been accustomed to consider the colonies, in general, as only so many dependencies on the council board, the board of trade, and the board of customs, or as a hot-bed for causes, jobs, and pecuniary emoluments, and bound as effectually by instructions given to governors as by laws, can be prevailed upon to consider these patriot rustics with any degree of respect. But how contemptuously soever these gentlemen may talk of the colonies, how cheap soever they may hold their assemblies, or how insignificant the planters and traders who compose them, truth will be truth, and principle principle, notwithstanding. Courage, wisdom, integrity, and honour, are not to be measured by the sphere assigned them to act in, but by the trials they undergo, and the vouchers they furnish; and, if so manifested, need neither robes nor titles to set them off."

¹ Britain, where the work was published.

The following sentence expresses the principle on which, little more than ten years after, the revolt of the colonies from the dominion of Britain was justified. — “The birth-right of every British subject is, to have a property of his own, in his estate, person, and reputation; subject only to laws enacted by his own concurrence, either in person or by his representatives; and which birth-right accompanies him wheresoever he wanders or rests, so long as he is within the pale of the British dominions, and is true to his allegiance.”

With grave, yet pungent and animated satire, he unfolds the changes which William Penn gradually introduced into the constitution of Pennsylvania, and the dissensions that had ever since prevailed between that great man and his descendants, on the one hand; and the colonists and provincial assemblies, on the other. But it would be impossible to do justice to these passages, without transcribing from them more largely than my limits will admit.

“It is not necessary in private life, to bargain that those who purchase for their own use and advantage, should pay the price out of their own pockets; but in public it is. Persons who stand on the same ground, will insist on the same rights; and it is matter of wonder, when any one party discovers folly or insolence enough to demand or expect any pre-eminence over the other: whereas prerogative admits of no equality, and presupposes that difference of place alters the use of language, and even the very nature of things. Hence, though protection is the reason, and, consequently, should be the end of government, we ought to be as much upon our guard against our protectors as against our enemies.

“Power, like water, is ever working its own way; and whenever it can find or make an opening, is altogether as prone to overflow whatever is subject to it. And though matter of right overlooked, may be reclaimed and reassumed at any time, it cannot be too soon reclaimed and reassumed.”—

“The true state of Pennsylvania is now before us. It is apparent the assemblies of that province have acted from the beginning on the defensive only. The defensive is what every man, by the right and law of Nature, is entitled to. Jealousy is the first principle of defence: if men were not to suspect, they would rarely, if ever, be upon their guard.”—

“And this being the truth, the plain truth, and nothing but the truth, there is no need to direct the censures of the public, which, on proper information, are always sure to fall in the right place. The parties before them are the two proprietaries of a province, and the province itself. And who or what are these proprietaries? In the province, unsizeable subjects and insufficient lords. At home, gentlemen, it is true, but gentlemen so very private, that in the herd of gentry they are hardly to be found; not in court; not in office; not in parliament.

“And which is of most consequence to the community; whether their private estate shall be taxed, or the province shall

be saved? Whether these two private gentlemen, in virtue of their absolute proprietaryship, shall convert so many fellow-subjects born as free as themselves, into vassals; or whether so noble and useful a province shall for ever remain an asylum for all that wish to remain as free as the inhabitants of it have, hitherto, made a shift to preserve themselves. *Sub judice lis est.*"

This eloquent and ingenious performance was generally ascribed, at the time, in England, to James Ralph a sprightly, entertaining, and once popular writer, but now almost entirely forgotten. His birth-place is unknown, but he is supposed to have been a native of Philadelphia, which he quitted in company with Franklin, in 1725, for England, where he acquired much consideration and earned a pension by his political and historical compositions. Ashamed of blameless poverty and humble usefulness, on his arrival in England, he assumed for a while the name of his companion Franklin, whose friendship has eventually been the means of rescuing the name of Ralph from entire oblivion. Franklin's Memoirs. Watkin's Biographical Dictionary.

NOTE III. Page 34.

"After the taking of Fort Du Quesne, General Forbes resolved to search for the relics of Braddock's army. As the European soldiers were not so well qualified to explore the forests, Captain West, the elder brother of Benjamin West the painter, was appointed, with his company of American sharpshooters, to assist in the execution of this duty; and a party of Indian warriors, who had returned to the British interests, were requested to conduct him to the places where the bones of the slain were likely to be found. In this solemn and affecting duty, several officers belonging to the 42d regiment accompanied the detachment, and with them Major Sir Peter Halket, who had lost his father and a brother in the fatal destruction of the army. It might have been thought a hopeless task, that he should be able to discriminate their remains from the common relics of the other soldiers; but he was induced to think otherwise, as one of the Indian warriors assured him that he had seen an officer fall near a remarkable tree, which he thought he could still discover; informing him, at the same time, that the incident was impressed on his memory by observing a young subaltern, who, in running to the officer's assistance, was also shot dead on his reaching the spot, and fell across the other's body. The Major had a mournful conviction in his own mind, that the two officers were his father and brother; and indeed, it was chiefly owing to his anxiety on the subject, that this pious expedition, the second of the kind that history records, was undertaken.

"Captain West and his companions proceeded through the woods

and along the banks of the river, towards the scene of the battle. The Indians regarded the expedition as a religious service, and guided the troops with awe and in profound silence. The soldiers were affected with sentiments not less serious; and as they explored the bewildering labyrinths of those vast forests, their hearts were often melted with inexpressible sorrow; for they frequently found skeletons lying across the trunks of fallen trees—a mournful proof to their imaginations, that the men who sat there had perished of hunger, in vainly attempting to find their way to the plantations. Sometimes their feelings were raised to the utmost pitch of horror, by the sight of skulls and bones scattered on the ground—a certain indication that the bodies had been devoured by wild beasts; and in other places they saw the blackness of ashes amidst the relics—the tremendous evidence of atrocious rites.

“At length they reached a turn of the river, not far from the principal scene of destruction; and the Indian who remembered the death of the two officers stopped: the detachment also halted. He then looked around in quest of some object, which might recall, distinctly, his recollection of the ground, and suddenly darted into the wood. The soldiers rested their arms without speaking. A shrill cry was soon after heard; and the other guides made signs for the troops to follow them towards the spot from which it came. In a short time they reached the Indian warrior, who, by his cry, had announced to his companions that he had found the place where he was posted on the day of battle. As the troops approached, he pointed to the tree under which the officers had fallen. Captain West halted his men round the spot and with Sir Peter Halket and the other officers, formed a circle, while the Indians removed the leaves which thickly covered the ground. The skeletons were found, as the Indian expected, lying across each other. The officers having looked at them some time, the Major said, that as his father had an artificial tooth, he thought he might be able to ascertain if they were indeed his bones and those of his brother. The Indians were therefore ordered to remove the skeleton of the youth, and to bring to view that of the old officer. This was immediately done; and after a short examination, Major Halket exclaimed, “It is my father!” and fell back into the arms of his companions. The pioneers then dug a grave, and the bones being laid in it together, a Highland plaid was spread over them, and they were interred with the customary honours.

“When Lord Grosvenor bought the picture of the death of Wolfe, Mr. West mentioned to him the finding of the bones of Braddock’s army, as a pictorial subject capable of being managed with great effect. The gloom of the vast forest, the naked and simple Indians supporting the skeletons, the grief of the son on recognising the relics of his father, the subdued melancholy of the spectators, and the picturesque garb of the Pennsylvanian sharp-

shooters, undoubtedly furnished topics capable of every effect which the pencil could bestow, or the imagination require, in the treatment of so sublime a scene. His lordship admitted, that in possessing so affecting an incident as the discovery of the bones of the Halkets, it was superior even to that of the search for the remains of the army of Varus: but as the transaction was little known, and not recorded by any historian, he thought it would not be interesting to the public." Galt's *Life of West*.

NOTE IV. Page 37.

"Nor was encouragement refused [in England] to those who distinguished themselves by extraordinary talents in any branch of the liberal arts and sciences, though no Mæcenas appeared among the ministers, and not the least ray of patronage glimmered from the throne. The protection, countenance and gratification secured in other countries by the institution of academies, and the liberalities of princes, the ingenious in England derived from the generosity of a public endued with taste and sensibility, eager for improvement, and proud of patronizing extraordinary merit. Several years had already elapsed since a society of private persons was instituted at London, for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce. It consisted of a president, vice-president, secretary, register, collector, and other officers, elected from a very considerable number of members who pay a certain yearly contribution for the purposes of the institution."—"The funds thus contributed, after the necessary expense of the society had been deducted, were expended in premiums for planting and husbandry; for discoveries and improvements in chemistry, dyeing and mineralogy; for promoting the ingenious arts of drawing, engraving, casting, painting, statuary, and sculpture; for the improvement of manufactures and machines, in the various articles of hats, crapes, druggets, mills, marbled paper, ship-blocks, spinning-wheels, tows, yarn, nitting, and weaving. They likewise, *allotted sums for the advantage of the British colonies in America*, and bestowed premiums on those settlers who should excel in curing cochineal, planting logwood trees, cultivating olive trees, producing myrtle-wax, making potash, preserving raisins, curing safflower, making silk and wines, importing sturgeon, preparing isinglass, planting hemp and cinnamon, extracting opium and the gum of the persimon tree, collecting stones of the mango, which should be found to vegetate in the West Indies, raising silk grass, and laying out provincial gardens." Smollet.

NOTE V. Page 83.

"In the legal history of a commercial country, the fortune of

the only bankrupt law which could ever be obtained, becomes a matter of curiosity. This law, having been laid before the king for the royal approbation, agreeably to the charter, was referred to the lords of trade. After mature consideration, they gave it as their opinion, that although a bankrupt law be just and equitable upon its abstract principle, yet it had always been found in its execution to afford such opportunities for fraudulent practices, that even in England, where in most cases the whole number of creditors were resident on the spot, it might well be doubted whether the fair trader, did not receive more detriment than benefit from such a law. But that if a like law should take place in a colony where (as they were informed) not above one-tenth part of its creditors were resident, and where that small proportion of the whole, both in number and value, might (as under the present act they might) upon a commission being issued, get possession of the bankrupt's effects, and proceed and make a dividend, before the merchants in England, who composed the other nine-tenths of the bankrupt's creditors, could even be informed of such bankruptcy; it was easy to foresee that such a law would be beneficial to the very small part of the creditors resident in the colony only, and that the rest of them who resided in England would be exposed to frauds and difficulties of every sort, and might be greatly injured in their properties. This opinion prevailed, and the law was accordingly disapproved by the king, to the great inconvenience of many debtors who had actually surrendered their effects under it." —Minot.

NOTE VI. Page 40.

On this occasion, the assembly of Massachusetts presented the following address to Governor Pownall, who had communicated to them the wishes and solicitations of Amherst. It is a curious and interesting document to the student of American History.

"The several reasons and motives which your excellency has from time to time laid before the two houses, in order to induce an augmentation of the forces for the service of the present year, have been maturely weighed and considered by us.

"We have likewise had an opportunity, in the recess of the court, of acquainting ourselves, with the state of the several parts of the province, and its ability for raising an additional number of men. We acknowledge with gratitude, that the interest and ease of the people has been considered by your excellency in making the last levy, as far as could consist with his Majesty's service, and the purposes for which the men are raised. The distress brought upon the inhabitants, is notwithstanding extremely great. The number of men raised this year, we are sensible is not equal to that of the last. The assembly then made the greatest effort that has ever been known in the province. They looked upon it to be their last effort; they had no expectations that it would be repeated; and it

was really so great as to render it impracticable for us to make the like a second time. The number of our inhabitants is, since then, much lessened: some were killed in battle; many died by sickness while they were in service, or soon after their return home: great numbers have enlisted as rangers, artificers, recruits in his Majesty's regular forces, and for other branches of the service.

"The unprecedented charge of the last year also tends to increase the distress of the province. The expense of the regiments raised for his Majesty's service, amounted to nearly one hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling: besides this, the inhabitants of the several towns in the province, by fines or by voluntary contributions to procure men for the service, paid at least sixty-thousand pounds sterling more; which was in all respects as burdensome, as if it had been raised as a tax by the government. The defence of our own frontiers, and the other ordinary charges of government amount to at least thirty thousand pounds sterling more.

"Because the province last year raised seven thousand men, it is inferred that it is able to raise the same number this year, and no allowance is made for its being so much reduced in its estate and number of inhabitants.

"We have generally been the first in proposals for public service, and have determined what force we would employ: other governments have followed after us in just what proportion they pleased; and we wish it had been an equal one. We are now lessened, and they are increased; and we are yet urged to continue the same proportions. We have always chosen to avoid entering into the consideration of quotas or proportions; but we seem now obliged to do it. We conceive that in order to determine a just proportion, the wealth, the number of inhabitants, and the charges of each government for its immediate defence, are all to come under consideration. If this be allowed to be a just rule to determine by, we are sure, that not only in all past years, but in this present year also, we have done more in proportion to the general service, than any one government upon the continent.

"We know of no quota settled for each colony. The agreement made at Albany by the commissioners in the year 1754, has been generally urged as a rule of proportion since that time. But it was agreed by the same commissioners, that regard should always be had to the special services of any colony for its immediate defence. We are obliged to keep six hundred men in pay for the defence of our frontiers and sea-coasts. This charge some of the other governments are wholly free from, and the rest subject to in a very small degree. Exclusive of these six hundred men, we have already raised five thousand men, for the general service. Connecticut has raised in proportion,¹ to the five thousand only, according to the Albany plan, without any regard to the six hun-

¹ This statement was made, apparently, before Connecticut finally consented herself to raise five thousand men.

dred. Every other government falls short even of that: so that we have this year already done more in proportion than any of our neighbours.

"We are told that we are *the leading province*: we have been so for many years past, and we have been as long unequally burdened. We have borne it patiently, although we have seen our people leaving us, and removing to other governments in order to live more free from taxes. A few years ago, for this reason alone, four of our principal towns refused any longer to submit to our jurisdiction; and another government¹ found a pretence for receiving them, and they are not yet returned to us.

"Under these distresses, we are still willing to afford every reasonable aid in our power. A farther impress would distress and discourage the people to such a degree, that as well in faithfulness to the service, as to the particular interest of this province, we are bound to decline it. But great as our burdens are, we have now engaged a bounty more than double what has ever yet been given by the province, in order to procure a voluntary enlistment of fifteen hundred men, over and above the five thousand already raised; and we have reason to hope that this bounty will be sufficient and have the effect your excellency desires." Minot.

NOTE VII. Page 44.

"Niagara is, without exception, the most important post in America and secures a greater number of communications, through a more extensive country, than perhaps any other pass in the world, for it is situated at the very entrance of a strait by which Lake Ontario is joined to Lake Erie, which is connected with the other three great lakes by the course of the vast river St. Lawrence, which runs through them all, and carries their superfluous waters to the ocean."—"From the time when the French were first acquainted with this place they were fully sensible of its importance both with respect to trade and dominion. They made several attempts to establish themselves here, but the Indians constantly opposed it, and obliged them to relinquish a fort which they had built, and guarded this spot for a long time with a very severe and prudent jealousy.

"But whilst *we* neglected to cultivate the love of the Indians, the French omitted no endeavours to gain these savages to their interest; and prevailed at last, under the name of a trading-house, to erect a strong fort at the mouth of the strait. This advantage was obtained for his country by a French officer of an enterprising genius, who had been a prisoner among the Iroquois (one of the tribes of the Six Nations) for a long time, and according to their custom, was naturalized, and became very popular among them." —

¹ Connecticut — See chap. ii. *ante*.

"The trading-house which he obtained leave to build, extended and strengthened by various additions, at last became a regular fortress, which had ever since awed the Six Nations, and checked our colonies."

"As to these immense lakes, which are all in a manner commanded by this fort, the reader need only cast his eyes on the map of North America to be convinced of their importance. They afforded by far the most extensive inland navigation in the whole universe. Whoever is master of them, must sooner or later command that whole continent. They are all surrounded by a fine fruitful country in a temperate pleasant climate. *The day may possibly come when this noble country, which seems calculated for universal empire will sufficiently display its own importance.*" Wynne.

NOTE VIII. Page 95.

"Mr. Otis, at the first town meeting of Boston, after the peace, having been chosen moderator, addressed himself to the inhabitants in a speech which he caused to be printed in the newspapers, to the following effect: — 'We in America have certainly abundant reasons to rejoice. Not only are the heathen driven out, but the Canadians, much more formidable enemies, are conquered and become fellow-subjects. The British dominion and power may now be said, literally, to extend from sea to sea, and from the great river to the ends of the earth. And we may safely conclude from his majesty's wise administration hitherto, that liberty and knowledge, civil and religious, will be co-extended, improved and preserved to the latest posterity. No other constitution of civil government has yet appeared in the world, so admirably adapted to these great purposes as that of Great Britain. Every British subject in America is, of common right, by acts of parliament, and by the laws of God and nature, entitled to all the essential privileges of Britons. By particular charters, there are peculiar privileges granted, as in justice they might and ought, in consideration of the arduous undertaking to begin so glorious an empire as British America is rising to. Those jealousies, which some weak and wicked minds have endeavoured to infuse with regard to the colonies, had their birth in the blackness of darkness: and it is great pity they had not remained there for ever. The true interests of Great Britain and her plantations, are mutual; and, what God in his providence has united, let no man dare attempt to pull asunder.'" Hutchinson.

NOTE IX. Page 111.

"In few of the hard fought battles and signal victories of Europe, which are celebrated with so much eclat, is there such an

exhibition of obstinate persevering fortitude, and of military skill, as appeared in this action." Trumbull.

"Those who have experienced only the severities and dangers of a campaign in Europe can scarcely form an idea of what is to be done and endured in an American war. To act in a country cultivated and inhabited, where roads are made, magazines are established, and hospitals provided; where there are towns to retreat to in case of misfortune, or at the worst a generous enemy to yield to from whom no consolation except the honour of victory can be wanting; — this may be considered as the exercise of a spirited and adventurous mind, rather than a rigid contest where all is at stake, and mutual destruction the object; and as a contention between rivals for glory, rather than a deadly struggle between sanguinary enemies. But in an American campaign, every thing is terrible; the face of the country, the climate, the enemy. There is no refreshment for the healthy, nor relief for the sick. A vast inhospitable desert surrounds the troops, where victories are not decisive, but defeats are ruinous, and simple death is the least misfortune which can happen to a soldier. This forms a service truly critical, in which all the firmness of the body and the mind is put to the severest trial, and all the exertions of courage and address are called out. If the actions of these rude campaigns are of less dignity, the adventures in them are more interesting to the heart, and more amusing to the imagination, than the events of a more regular war." Annual Register for 1763.

Yet, only a few years after this period, a philosopher no less distinguished than Adam Smith, ventured to assert in the plenitude of learned ignorance and ingenious error, that "Nothing can be more contemptible than an Indian war in North America." Smith estimated the importance of war by a very vulgar test if he regarded only the number of men actually slain. His ideas of the Indians and their hostility would perhaps have been very different, if, instead of being kidnapped for a few hours in his infancy, by a gang of roguish Scottish gipseys, he had been scalped by the tomahawk of a Cherokee or Delaware Indian. Colonel Barré, who had served in America, declared in his celebrated speech in the British House of Commons upon American taxation in the year 1765, that the Indians were as enemies, "the most subtle and the most formidable of any people upon the face of God's earth." This testimony of an experienced officer outweighs the opinions of a thousand such presumptuous penmen as Smith and Chalmers.

NOTE X. Page 136.

It is remarkable that the same idea, long before announced by Sir Thomas Browne and Bishop Berkeley, of the westward progress of national dominion and glory, with especial reference to the prospects of America, was also expressed in the year 1760, by

an Italian improvisatore, who, meeting West the American painter, at Rome, where he had gone to study the fine arts, was moved to display his peculiar genius, in a poetical effusion of the following tenor. "He sung the darkness which, for so many ages, veiled America from the eyes of science. He described the fulness of time, when the purposes for which America was raised from the deep, were to be manifested. He painted the seraph of knowledge descending from heaven, and directing Columbus to undertake the discovery; and he related the leading incidents of the voyage. He invoked the fancy of his auditors to contemplate the wild magnificence of mountain, lake, and wood, in the new world: and he raised, as it were, in vivid perspective, the Indians in the chase, and at their horrible sacrifices. 'But,' he exclaimed, 'the beneficent spirit of improvement is ever on the wing, and, like the ray from the throne of God which inspired the conception of the Virgin, it has descended on this youth; and the hope which ushered in its new miracle, like the star that guided the magi to Bethlehem, has led him to Rome. Methinks I behold in him an instrument chosen by Heaven, to raise in America the taste for those arts which elevate the nature of man — an assurance that his country will afford a refuge to science and knowledge, when, in the old age of Europe, they shall have forsaken her shores. But all things of heavenly origin, like the glorious sun, move westward: and Truth and Art have their periods of shining and of night. Rejoice then, O venerable Rome, in thy divine destiny! for though darkness overshadow thy seats, and though thy mitred head must descend into the dust, as deep as the earth that now covers thy ancient helmet and imperial diadem, thy spirit, immortal and undecayed, already spreads towards a new world, where, like the soul of man in paradise, it will be perfected in virtue and beauty more and more.'" Galt's *Life of West*.

NOTE XI. Page 145.

"The idea that the works of the artists were public, was so deeply fixed among the Greeks, that it could not be eradicated even by the profanations of the Romans. The works of art, according to this idea, belong not to individuals, but to the cultivated part of mankind. They should be a common property. Even in our times, when individuals are permitted to possess them, censure is incurred, if others are not also allowed to enjoy them. But even where this privilege is conceded, it is not a matter of indifference, whether an individual or the nation is the possessor. The respect shown to the arts by the nation, in possessing their productions, confers a higher value on the labours of the artists. How much more honoured does the artist feel,—how much more freely does he breathe, when he knows that he is exerting himself for a nation, which will account its glory increased by his works,

instead of toiling to obtain the money, and gratify the caprices of individuals. Such was the condition of the arts in Greece. When emulation arose among the cities, to be distinguished by the possession of works of art, a field was opened for a Phidias and Polygnotus, for a Praxiteles and Parrhasius. They were better rewarded by glory than by money. Some of them never worked for pay." Heeren's *Reflections on the Politics of Ancient Greece*. (Bancroft's Translation.)

NOTE XII. Page 155.

A few extracts from this work may be acceptable to some readers, who either cannot procure it, or are deterred by its bulk from perusing it.

"No extensive plan was originally aimed at; but the instructions given to the missionaries by Count Zinzendorf were nearly to the following effect:—"That they should silently observe whether any of the heathen had been prepared by the grace of God to receive and believe the word of life. If even only one were to be found, then they should preach the gospel to *him*; for God must give the heathen ears to hear the gospel, and hearts to receive it, otherwise all the labour bestowed upon them would be vain. He also recommended them to preach chiefly to such heathen as had never heard the gospel; adding, that we were not called to build upon foundations laid by others,¹ nor to disturb their work, but to seek the outcast and forsaken.'"

An Indian convert thus related his experience:—"Brethren, I have been an heathen, and have grown old amongst the heathen; therefore, I know how heathen think. Once a preacher came to us, and began to explain that there was a God. We answered, 'Dost thou think us so ignorant as not to know that? Go back to the place whence thou camest.' Then again, another preacher came, and began to teach us, and to say 'You must not steal, nor lie, nor get drunk.' We answered, 'Thou fool! dost thou think that we dont know that? Learn, first, thyself, and then teach the people to whom thou belongest to leave off these things. For who steals, or lies, or who is more drunken than thine own people?'—And thus we dismissed him. After some time, Brother Rauch came into my hut, and sat down by me: he spoke to me nearly as follows:—"I come to you in the name of the Lord of heaven and earth: he sends to let you know that he will make you happy, and deliver you from the misery in which you lie at present. To this end, he became a man, gave his life a ransom for man, and shed his blood for him, &c. &c.'" When he had finished his discourse, he lay down upon a board, fatigued by the

¹ In conformity with this advice, the Moravian Missionaries withdrew from a place where they found that Brainerd was teaching. Of him and his labours they expressed a high admiration.

journey, and fell into a sound sleep. I then thought,—‘What kind of man is this? There he lies, and sleeps. I might kill him, and throw him out into the wood; and who would regard it? But this gives him no concern.’ However, I could not forget his words; they constantly recurred to my mind. Even when I was asleep, I dreamt of that blood which Christ shed for us. I found this to be something different from what I had ever heard, and I interpreted Rauch’s words to the other Indians. Thus, through the grace of God, an awakening took place amongst us. I say, therefore, brethren, preach Christ our Saviour, and his sufferings and death, if you would have your words to gain entrance among the heathen.”

“The Indian convert Jonathan, meeting some white people, who had entered into so violent a dispute about baptism and the holy Communion, that they at last proceeded to blows,—‘These people,’ said he, ‘know certainly nothing of our Saviour; for they speak of him as we do of a strange country.’”

“A trader was endeavouring to persuade the Indian convert Abraham, that the brethren were not privileged teachers. He answered, ‘They may be what they will; but I know what they have told me, and what God has wrought within me. Look at my poor countrymen there, lying drunk before your door. Why do you not send privileged teachers, to convert them, if they can? Four years ago, I also lived like a beast, and not one of you troubled himself about me; but when the brethren came, they preached the cross of Christ, and I have experienced the power of his blood according to their doctrine; so that I am freed from the dominion of sin. Such teachers we want.’” “The Indian convert, Daniel, was now asked upon his death-bed, whether he was contented to die? To this he answered, with a smile, ‘that he was satisfied with whatever our Saviour should do with him.’ During his whole illness he preached the gospel to his countrymen; and his happy departure to the Lord produced a great emotion in the hearts of all present.”

“An European man being once present as a spectator, when the Sacrament was administered to the Indian congregation declared afterwards, that though he had received the Communion many hundred times, yet he had never, till now, perceived its powerful effect on the heart; adding, that this was truly the Supper of the Lord, and that, whilst he lived, he should never lose the impression it had made upon him.”

“Meanwhile, the persecutions against the brethren engaged in the mission did not cease; and sometimes they were even cruelly treated. Nor can it be denied, that some occasion was given by the inconsiderate zeal of the awakened Indians. They would often boldly reprove the white people for their sinful way of life; and, whenever they were interrogated, spoke the truth, without any reserve or caution. For instance, a Dutch clergyman, in

Westenhuck, asked an Indian whom he had baptized, if he had been at Shekomeko (the scene of one of the Moravian missions), and if he had heard the missionary preach, and how he liked him? The Indian answered, 'I have been there, and attended to the missionary's words, and like to hear them. I would rather hear the missionary than you; for when he speaks, it is as though his words laid hold of my heart, and a voice within said, *That is truth*; but you are always playing about the truth, and never come to the point. You have no love for our souls; for, when you have once baptized us, you let us run wild, without troubling yourself any further about us. You act much worse than one who plants Indian corn; for the planter sometimes goes to see whether his corn grows or not.' Upon another occasion, a white man asked John, the Indian, 'Whether the brethren were Papists?' John desired to know who the Papists were; and when he heard of the worship of images, he answered, 'That he supposed those people were more like Papists, who worshipped their cows, horses, and plantations.' The white man replied, 'But why are the people so enraged against the brethren?' John answered, 'Why did the people crucify the Lord Jesus, and throw Paul bound into prison?'

"An Indian woman, from Menissing, paid a visit to John, and told him that, as soon as she had a good heart, she also would turn to the Lord Jesus. 'Ah,' replied John, 'you want to walk on your head! How can you get a good heart, unless you come first to Jesus?'

"Samuel, the Indian, endeavoured likewise to speak to his own brother, in regard to his conversion, but received this unexpected answer: 'My ancestors are all gone to the devil; and where they are, I will be likewise.'

"The missionaries were repeatedly removed from station to station; the brethren being of opinion, that frequent changes of ministers might be useful in preventing too strong an attachment to, and dependence upon men, and fixing the hope of the Indians more upon God alone."

"The missionaries praised God especially, for the unreserved manner in which the Indians owned their defects, and asked advice. One of them said, 'That he was in doubt how he should behave in future; his heart being as unbroken as a stubborn horse.' He added, 'A man may have a very wild horse, but if he can only once make it eat salt out of his hand, then it will always come to him again: but I am not so disposed towards our Saviour, who is continually offering me his grace. I have once tasted grace out of his hand, and yet my heart still runs away, even when he holds out his grace unto me. Thus we Indians are so very stupid, that we have not even the sense of beasts.'" Loskiel.

It is an unhappy defect of most religious memoirs and reports, that they are a great deal too long. *The Acts of the Apostles*,

the first and the best, are also the shortest Missionary Reports ever published.

NOTE XIII. Page 277.

Franklin, in a letter written from London to America in May 1768, thus describes the situation of affairs in the parent state :—“ Even this capital, the residence of the king, is now a daily scene of lawless riot and confusion. Mobs patrolling the streets at noon day, some knocking all down that will not roar for Wilkes and Liberty. Courts of justice afraid to give judgment against him : coal-heavers and porters pulling down the houses of coal merchants that refuse to give them more wages ; sawyers destroying saw-mills ; sailors unrigging all the outward-bound ships, and suffering none to sail till merchants agree to raise their pay ; watermen destroying private boats and threatening bridges ; soldiers firing among the mobs, and killing men, women, and children : which seems only to have produced an universal sullenness, that looks like a great black cloud coming on, ready to burst in a general tempest. What the event will be, God only knows. But some punishment seems preparing for a people who are ungratefully abusing the best constitution and *the best king* any nation was ever blessed with ; intent on nothing but luxury, licentiousness, power, places, pensions, and plunder ; while the ministry, divided in their councils, with little regard for each other, worried by perpetual opposition, in continual apprehension of danger, intent on securing popularity in case they should lose favour, have, for some years past, had little time or inclination to attend to our small affairs, whose remoteness makes them appear still smaller.” Some of the opinions expressed by Franklin in the foregoing letter gradually underwent a material change. In subsequent letters, he declares his conviction that all the arbitrary measures of the British government originated from the will and character of the king. The first hint of this occurs in a letter written to his son Governor Franklin, in 1773, wherein he says : “ The late measures have been, I suspect, very much the king’s own ; and he has in some cases a great share of what his friends call *firmness*.” In writing to La Fayette in the year 1779, he remarks that it may be reckoned certain that the English nation, in their conduct to other states, will omit whatever is prudent, and do whatever is imprudent, “ at least while the present ministry continues, or rather, while *the present madman* has the choice of ministers.”

In the year 1767, we have seen Franklin characterise the French as “ *that intriguing nation*,” to whose insidious policy he hoped no scope would be afforded. Twelve years afterwards, we find him declaring that “ the Spaniards are, by common opinion, supposed to be cruel, the English proud, the Scotch insolent, and the Dutch avaricious ; but I think the French have *no national*

vice ascribed to them. They have what may be called follies, *perhaps* (!); but not vices : and in short, there is nothing wanting in the character of a Frenchman, which belongs to that of an agreeable and worthy man." Franklin's Private Correspondence.

NOTE XIV. Page 293.

- “ Of all men, saving Sylla the man-slayer,
 Who passes for in life and death most lucky,
 Of the great names which in our faces stare,
 The General Boon, back-woodsman of Kentucky,
 Was happiest among mortals any where ;
 For, killing nothing but a bear or buck, he
 Enjoyed the lonely, vigorous, harmless days
 Of his old age in wilds of deepest maze.
- “ Crime came not near him — she is not the child
 Of solitude ; health shrank not from him — for
 Her home is in the rarely trodden wild,
 Where if men seek her not, and death be more
 Their choice than life, forgive them, as beguiled
 By habit to what their own hearts abhor
 In cages caged. The present case in point I
 Cite, is that Boon lived hunting up to ninety ;
- “ And what's still stranger, left behind a name
 For which men vainly decimate the throng,
 Not only famous, but of that *good* fame,
 Without which glory's but a tavern song —
 Simple, serene, the antipodes of shame,
 Which hate nor envy e'er could tinge with wrong,
 An active hermit, even in age the child
 Of nature, or the Man of Ross run wild.
- “ 'Tis true he shrank from men even of his nation,
 When they built up unto his darling trees,
 He moved some hundred miles off for a station
 Where there were fewer houses and more ease ;
 The inconvenience of civilization
 Is that you can neither be pleased nor please ;
 But where he met the individual man,
 He showed himself as kind as mortal can.
- “ He was not all alone : around him grew
 A sylvan tribe of children of the chace,
 Whose young unwakened world was ever new,
 Nor sword nor sorrow yet had left a trace
 On her unwrinkled brow, nor could you view
 A frown on Nature's or on human face ;
 The free-born forest found and kept them free,
 And fresh as is a torrent or a tree.

“ And tall, and strong, and swift of foot were they,
 Beyond the dwarfing city's pale abortions,
 Because their thoughts had never been the prey
 Of care or gain : the green woods were their portions ;
 No sinking spirits told them they grew grey,
 No fashion made them apes of her distortions ;
 Simple they were, not savage ; and their rifles,
 Though very true, were not yet used for trifles.

“ Motion was in their days, rest in their slumbers,
 And cheerfulness the handmaid of their toil ;
 Nor yet too many nor too few their numbers ;
 Corruption could not make their hearts her soil ;
 The lust which stings, the splendour which encumbers,
 With the free foresters divide no spoil ;
 Serene, not sullen, were the solitudes
 Of this unsighing people of the woods.”

LORD BYRON.

NOTE XV. Page 329.

“ The people of Boston are characteristically distinguished by a lively imagination ; an ardour easily kindled ; a sensibility soon excited, and strongly expressed ; a character more resembling that of the Greeks, than that of the Romans. They admire, when graver people would only approve ; detest, when cooler minds would only dislike ; applaud a performance, when others would listen in silence ; and hiss, when a less susceptible audience would only frown. This character renders them sometimes more, sometimes less amiable, usually less cautious. From this cause, their language is frequently hyperbolical, and their pictures of objects in any way interesting, highly-coloured. Hence also, their enterprises are sudden, bold, and sometimes rash. The tea shipped to Boston by the East India Company was destroyed. At New York and Philadelphia, it was stored, (i. e. locked up from use). From the same source also, both persons and things are suddenly, strongly, and universally applauded or censured. Individuals of distinction command a popularity which engrosses the public mind, and runs to enthusiasm. Their observations and their efforts are cited with wonder and delight ; and such as do not join in the chorus of applause, incur the suspicion of being weak, envious, or malevolent. When the sympathetic ardour is terminated, the persons who have received this homage, are, without any change of character, regarded, perhaps through life, as objects deserving of no peculiar esteem or attachment.” *Dwight's Travels*. Whatever claims to credit this sketch may possess, it derives none from the allusion to the transactions with regard to the East India Company's tea. The difference of circumstances sufficiently accounts for the different conduct of New York and Boston. If the people of Boston threw a cargo of tea into the

water, the people of New York threw a cargo of stamps into the fire.

The destruction of the tea at Boston, and other events that arose out of the controversy between Britain and America, are celebrated by Burns, in his song beginning, "When Guilford good our pilot stood," &c.

NOTE XVI. Page 332.

In a letter to his son, dated in October, 1773, Franklin, after expressing his own final opinion, that the British parliament had no right to enact any law whatever obligatory upon America, adds, "I know your sentiments differ from mine on these subjects. You are a thorough government man: which I do not wonder at; nor do I aim at converting you. I only wish you to act uprightly and steadily, avoiding that duplicity, which in Hutchinson adds contempt to indignation. If you can promote the prosperity of your people, and leave them happier than you found them; whatever your political principles are your memory will be honoured." Franklin's Private Correspondence. Part II. Governor Franklin, thus encouraged, persisted in adhering to the British government during the whole of the revolutionary war. That the father did not expect the war, or that notwithstanding the foregoing expressions, he was not prepared for a steady and inflexible adherence of his son to the political principles which he espoused, appears from the terms of the letter in which he answered an overture for reconciliation from the unfortunate ex-governor in the year 1784. "Nothing has ever hurt me so much," he then declared, "or affected me with such keen sensations, as to find myself deserted in my old age by my only son; and not only deserted, but to find him taking up arms against me in a cause wherein my good fame, fortune, and life, were all at stake." — "There are natural duties," he adds, "which precede political ones, and cannot be extinguished by them." Franklin's Memoirs.

It is certain that "a man cannot serve two masters," whose views and interests are irreconcilably distinct: but he may long delude himself with the hope of reconciling their views and blending their interests. Franklin himself was so desirous of preserving the integrity of the British empire, that while a seeming hope or even possibility of this remained, the superior force of his attachment to American liberty was unknown alike to himself and to his friends and associates — some of whom were, doubtless, surprised by the violent flow of his passions when only one channel remained for them. Soon after the battle of Bunker's Hill, Franklin thus wrote to his ancient and intimate friend, the king's printer at London: "Mr. Strahan! You are a member of parliament, and one of that majority that has doomed my country to destruc-

tion. Look at your hands, sir! They are red with the blood of your countrymen. You were once my friend. Now, you are my enemy; and, I am yours, B. FRANKLIN." With much philosophic calmness and composure of general demeanour, relieved by occasional indulgence of playful wit, Franklin combined a wonderful force of action and warmth of zeal.

NOTE XVII. Page 350.

Yet the Americans possessed at this time many warm friends in England, whose zeal broke forth in some remarkable demonstrations. In the month of February, 1775, a pamphlet published at London, defending the conduct of Britain, with arguments that struck at the very foundation of British constitutional liberty, was complained of by a peer of Whiggish principles, to the House of Lords, by whom it was ordered to be burned by the hands of the common executioner. A few days after, on the complaint of a Tory Peer, the House of Lords ordered the same treatment to be inflicted on some of the writings of Thomas Paine, in defence of the Americans and reprobation of the British king, which had been republished in England. The populace of London endeavoured to obstruct this latter ceremonial; and immediately after its performance, publicly burned, with marks of strong displeasure and contempt, a recent Parliamentary Address on American Affairs. Ann. Reg. for 1775.

When the Boston Port-Bill was passed, a political Society at London, calling itself the Supporters of the Bill of Rights, voted a contribution of 500*l.* to relieve the distress occasioned by the bill to the people of Boston. Ibid.

On the 7th of June, 1775, a number of gentlemen, members of a political club called the Constitutional Society of London, united in a declaration of abhorrence of the attack upon the Americans, at Lexington. They subscribed a sum of money, which they expressly appointed "to be applied to the relief of the widows, orphans, and aged parents of our beloved American fellow-subjects, who, faithful to the character of Englishmen, and preferring death to slavery, were, for that reason only, inhumanly murdered by the king's troops, at or near Lexington, in the province of Massachusetts, on the 19th of last April." This proceeding, which had been chiefly promoted by the celebrated scholar, philosopher, and politician, John Horne Tooke, was published by him in the newspapers of London. Horne Tooke was consequently tried for a libel; and, notwithstanding a most ingenious and spirited defence, found guilty, and sentenced to a pecuniary fine and a year's imprisonment. Howell's State Trials.

In the month of July, 1776, Lord Chatham prosecuted Woodfall, the printer of a London Newspaper, for a *Libel*, in having asserted that his lordship's sentiments coincided with those

of the British ministry, and were unfavourable to the Americans. A technical error in the proceedings, caused this action to terminate in a nonsuit. Ann. Reg. for 1776.

NOTE XVIII. Page 410.

All the information conveyed in this paragraph of the text, is derived from conversations which I had the honour and advantage of holding with La Fayette, at his house in Paris, in the month of May, 1829. Though the sequel of his communications is hardly *relevant* to the purpose of the present work, I think it far too interesting to be omitted; and, accordingly, transcribe as follows, from the manuscript journal which I enlarged after every conversation with La Fayette, and the accuracy of which I ascertained, by subsequent personal correspondence with himself.

La Fayette, brooding over the design suggested to him by the language of the Duke of Gloucester, entered, soon after, into communication with Silas Deane, and subsequently with Dr. Franklin, when the Doctor arrived at Paris as Commissioner from America to France. On learning the first successes of the British army, which followed shortly after the American Declaration of Independence, both Franklin and Deane protested that they could not encourage La Fayette to pursue his romantic purpose, as they feared that the cause of American liberty was irretrievably lost. Undeterred by this remonstrance, he resolved to persevere; and, awaiting the completion, which Franklin undertook to superintend, of an equipment of useful articles which he was to take with him to America, he paid a visit to England, where his uncle, De Noailles, a timid, circumspect man, resided as Ambassador from France. Noailles presented his nephew to the British king, who, (aware of Franklin's negotiations at Paris, and desirous of cultivating friendly relations with the French,) said to La Fayette, 'I hope you mean to stay some time in Britain.' La Fayette answered, that this was not in his power. 'What obliges you to leave us?' asked the king. 'Please your Majesty,' replied La Fayette, 'I have a very particular engagement, which, if your Majesty were aware of, you would not desire me to stay.' The king afterwards expressed displeasure at that reply, when events disclosed its hidden import. La Fayette was invited to attend the review of a detachment of British troops, about to embark for America. He declined, under pretence of sickness; thinking it would be dishonourable thus to inspect the condition of troops, with whose enemies he purposed to unite himself. 'But,' he added to me, with some animation, 'I met them, six months after, at Brandywine.' One night, at an entertainment given by the Duke of Devonshire, at which La Fayette was present, the Duke of Dorset unexpectedly entered, having just arrived from Paris. He announced as news, that the French court had commanded

the American Commissioners to depart from France; and, at the same time, delivered to La Fayette some letters, which he had brought over for him. They were from Franklin, and stated both that his own negotiation with the French court was prospering, and that the equipment for La Fayette's voyage was completed. La Fayette immediately repaired to his uncle, and announced his instant departure for France. Noailles, after remonstrating ineffectually against this manifestation of indifference to the British monarch's civilities, demanded if his nephew would soon return to London. La Fayette answered, that he did not know. 'Well,' said the ambassador, 'shall I conceal your departure, and tell the king, when he next inquires for you, that you are unwell?' La Fayette was struck with this proposition, and eagerly seizing the opportunity it presented of advancing a point he had greatly at heart, of embroiling the courts of France and Britain, replied, 'My dear Uncle,—I could not have asked you to do that; but since you have offered, I shall really be glad if you will do it.' So the ambassador consequently did; and the British ministers, on learning soon after the departure of La Fayette for America, behaved to Noailles in a manner, that showed them fully persuaded that he had been accessory to his nephew's designs. Neither he nor the court of France, however, knew any thing about them, till after La Fayette had embarked; and then the French government despatched two vessels in good earnest, to pursue the gallant adventurer, with the purpose of intercepting his expedition to America, and bringing him forcibly back. Several years after, when Noailles, then ambassador at Vienna, received a visit from his nephew, he said to him, with a significant look, 'Now, La Fayette, I hope you have not come here to play me another such trick as you did at London.'

The conduct of the French court towards the Americans, La Fayette remarked, was fluctuating and indecisive, and, towards Britain, "of a very Austrian character," the reverse of upright and honourable.¹ That great statesman, Turgot, in 1775, presented a memorial to his colleagues in the French cabinet, representing the impolicy of aiding the Americans: Necker, (according to his daughter, Madame de Stael—*Considerat. sur la Revolution Francaise*,) gave the same counsel to Louis the Sixteenth: and in effect it was long before the French government consented openly and decisively to espouse the cause of American independence. They preferred the middle course of extending secret

¹ And yet when Lord Carlisle, and the other commissioners appointed by Britain in the year 1778, made a representation to this effect in one of their addresses to the American congress, La Fayette, transported by zeal and passion, charged Lord Carlisle with insulting his country, and challenged him to single combat. At a more advanced period of his life, La Fayette exhibited in all his conduct and behaviour a peculiar remoteness from stratagem, intrigue and duplicity; and graced a generous ardour which years and experience could never chill, with that dignity of disposition which in noble minds, corresponds with the growth of an illustrious reputation.

succours to the Americans ; till the displeasure and reproaches of England, and the strong current of public sentiment and opinion in France, overbore the scruples of the French monarch to declare himself the unprovoked enemy of the king of Britain, and the ally of a revolted people and republican commonwealth.

Spain, La Fayette remarked, was reluctantly dragged into the quarrel by France.¹ During the war, an American plenipotentiary resided at Madrid, but he was not received at court : and even after the peace of 1783, and the recognition by Britain, of American Independence, the Spanish court, from a reasonable apprehension of the security of its own colonial dominion, in South America, refused for a while to unite in this recognition, or to receive Carmichael the ambassador of the United States, in his diplomatic capacity. La Fayette who was then at Cadiz, repaired to Madrid at the request of Carmichael ; and, after some negotiation, informed the Spanish minister, Count Florida Blanca, that Carmichael would quit Spain, if he were not acknowledged before a certain day, — adding that, in such case it would be long enough before Spain would see another ambassador from America. Thereupon the Spanish court acknowledged Carmichael.

NOTE XIX. Page 426.

The late William Dillwyn of Walthamstow, informed me that the British government remitted ten thousand pounds to his brother, a pious and respectable quaker inhabitant of New Jersey, to be distributed among the families of the two quakers who were hanged.

Garden, in his anecdotes of the Revolutionary war, describes an occasion on which a party of quakers, proceeding to tender a congratulatory address to the British, on a victory which they had obtained, unluckily accosted General Lee at the head of a troop of American dragoons, whom they mistook for a neighbouring British detachment commanded by General Tarleton. Under this impression, they delivered their address to the very persons whose cause it loaded with reproach, and was intended to injure ; and had scarcely concluded, when one of the dragoons with a pistol shot the leader of the party through the head. The others, however, were spared and dismissed by the humane interposition of Lee.

Some quakers have indulged their favourite strain of declama-

¹ In the month of October, 1776, the Spanish monarch, by a public proclamation declared “ that in consequence of the amity subsisting between himself and the king of Great Britain, he should maintain a perfect neutrality during the present war ; that he should not give any aid to the Americans ; *but* that he should not refuse their admission into any ports of his dominions, while they conformed to the Spanish laws.” — See “ Anderson’s History of Commerce,” and Ann. Reg. for 1776.

tion, in complaints of the *persecution* which their American brethren underwent from their countrymen, during the Revolutionary war. But these complaints have awakened little sympathy; and impartial men have been more disposed to partake the indignation which was kindled against the quakers, and to admire the forbearance which these sectaries experienced. While America was a prey to all the misery and horror of a war conducted with the most barbarous licence and savage cruelty, the voice of quaker thanksgiving was heard to celebrate every additional disaster that befel her arms, and every increase of peril that menaced her liberty.

Brissot, whose unbounded admiration of the American quakers has betrayed him into some remarks upon their conduct more encomiastic than correct, has stated that Washington during the revolutionary war partook the prevailing prejudice and animosity of his countrymen against the quakers; but that he afterwards adopted very different sentiments, and assured Brissot that he considered their simplicity of manners, good morals, economy, and general reasonableness, as a powerful support to the new government which the revolution had established in America. The simplest and most intelligible explanation of this change of sentiment, seems to be, that Washington disliked the quakers when he was struggling against established monarchical power, for the same reason for which he liked them when he was administering established republican authority — that is, for their peaceable and unresisting submission to existing forms of government. Their weight against him in the one case, became weight in his favour in the other.

NOTE XX. Page 430.

One of the most interesting pictures that ever was painted, is that noble composition of Trumbull, an American painter, which represents the members of this congress in the act of subscribing the Declaration of Independence. It is impossible to survey the countenances there delineated, without acknowledging that these are men worthy of the great transaction in which they are engaged, and whom their country may well be proud of having produced. No affectation appears in their looks — no coarseness — no dramatic extravagance — no turbid passion — no effeminate refinement: but a graceful plainness and simplicity, manly sense, deliberate thought and courage, and calm determined possession of noble purpose. Comparing this picture with the corresponding French one, representing the *Serment du jeu de Paume*, (as I earnestly did one day in the house of La Fayette at Paris, while this great man directed my attention to them both,) we beheld a striking illustration of the contrasted character of the two nations. What fiery, turbid, theatrical aspect and gestures, the French artist has given to his countrymen! The one ceremony appears a fleet-

ing, extravagant dramatic show. In the other we seem to behold the edifice of national liberty established on firm and solid foundations.

Since the foregoing note was written, the Second French Revolution (of 1830) has occurred, and produced scenes of which the remembrance will constitute the pride and glory of France, and the pictorial representations will teach a grand and animating lesson to all the world.

NOTE XXI. Page 432.

“I am well aware,” says Adams in a letter to his wife, “of the toil, blood, and treasure it will cost to maintain this declaration, and support and defend these states; yet through all the gloom, I can see a ray of light and glory. I can see that the end is worth more than all the means; and that posterity will triumph, although you and I may rue — which I hope we shall not.”

“I will not,” says the greatest poet and one of the most admirable men that Scotland has ever produced, “I cannot enter into the merits of the cause — but I dare say the American congress in 1776 will be allowed to be as able and as enlightened as the English convention in 1668; and that their posterity will celebrate the centenary of their deliverance from us, as duly and sincerely as we do ours from the oppressive measures of the wrong-headed House of Stewart.” Burns’ Letters, 1788.

THE END.

